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ABSTRACT

The theme for 2004's National History Day is "Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History." This is a broad theme, so topics should be carefully selected and developed in ways that best reflect student talents and abilities. Studies should include an investigation into available primary and secondary sources, analysis of the evidence, and a clear explanation of the relationship of the topic to the theme. Materials in this National History Day Curriculum Book are divided into eleven sections: (1) "What Is National History Day?"; (2) "Theme Narrative: Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History"; (3) "Sample Topics for This Year's National History Day Theme"; (4) "Exploring NARA's Online Catalog, ARC, for Primary Sources"; (5) "Russia's March to the Pacific"; (6) "White House Encounters on the Web"; (7) "Exploring America's Past through Music: Resources on the Irish-American Experience"; (8) "Patriots and Loyalists: A Revolutionary Encounter"; (9) "Lewis and Clark: Across the Cultural Landscape"; (10) "Changing Hands: The American Economy and the Exchange of Power and Money during World War I"; and (11) "The Encounter with America through Numbers: Immigration and Demography." (BT)

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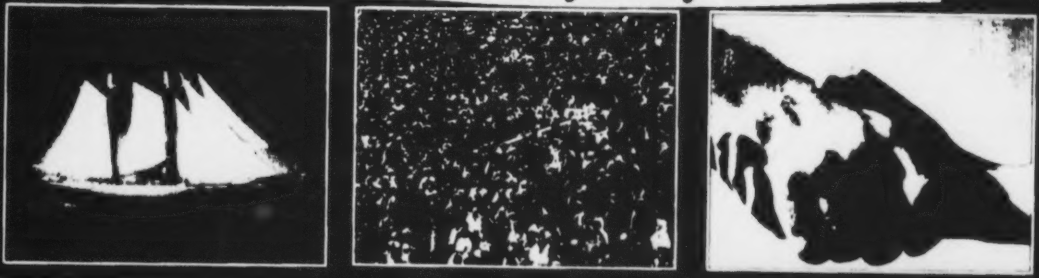
National History Day 2004



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Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History

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Program Accreditation

The American Association for State and Local History, the American Historical Association, the Federation of State Humanities Councils, the National Council for the Social Studies, and the Organization of American Historians endorse National History Day. The National Association of Secondary School Principals has placed National History Day on the NASSP National Advisory List of Contests and Activities.

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What is National History Day?

National History Day is an exciting way for students to study and learn about historical issues, ideas, people and events. This year-long educational program fosters academic achievement and intellectual growth. In addition to acquiring useful historical knowledge and perspective while developing entries and competing in a series of district, state and national contests, students develop critical thinking and problem solving skills that will help them manage and use information now and in the future.

The program begins at the start of the school year. Curriculum and contest materials are distributed to History Day coordinators and teachers throughout the country. The theme for 2004 is *Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History.*

In many states and districts, teachers are invited to workshops where they share ideas about how the year's theme can be most effectively addressed and also receive bibliographies and other resources. Teachers then introduce the program to their students who, in turn, choose topics and begin their research.

Students are encouraged to choose any topic in local, national or world history and investigate its historical significance and relationship to the theme by conducting extensive primary and secondary research. After analyzing and interpreting their information, students present their findings in papers, exhibits, performances, and documentaries that are evaluated by historians and educators.

National History Day has two divisions: the junior division (grades 6–8) and the senior division (grades 9–12). Some states also sponsor a History Day contest for students in grades 4 and 5.

Students can enter one of the following seven categories: individual paper, individual or group exhibit (similar to a museum exhibit), individual or group performance (a dramatic portrayal of the topic), individual or group documentary (usually a slide show, a video, or a non-interactive computer program). Groups may consist of two to five students.

District History Day contests are usually held in February or March. District winners then prepare for and compete at the state contests, usually held in April or early May. The top two finishers in each category at the state contest become eligible to advance to the national contest held in June at the University of Maryland at College Park.

National History Day 2004

Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History

National History Day invites students to research topics related to the theme *Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History* during the 2003-2004 school year. The theme is broad enough in scope to encourage investigation of topics ranging from local to world history. To fully comprehend the historical importance of their topics, students must ask questions of time and place, cause and effect, change over time, as well as impact and significance. They must consider not only when events happened, but also why they happened, what impact they had on broader history, and what factors contributed to their development. A presentation of a History Day topic, in short, should not be limited to description, but should draw conclusions about how that topic influenced individuals, communities, nations, the world.

EXPLORATION
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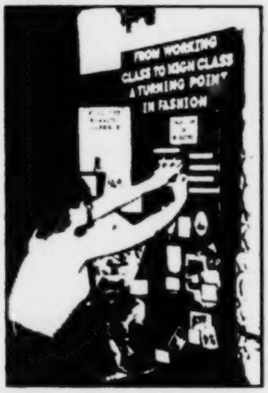
The word "exploration" can be applied to a range of historical settings. For some of us, the term conjures up visions of travel for the purpose of discovery, such as occurred during the European Age of Exploration. The lure of highly prized spices, improvements in ship design, powerful naval artillery, and a desire to spread Christianity to non-Christian lands drove Europeans to the seas in the fifteenth century. The term "explorer" may call to mind individuals such as Prince Henry of Portugal, who organized several expeditions to Africa in search of wealth during this period, or Christopher Columbus, whose plan to reach the spice-rich Indies more rapidly than his competitors failed, but dramatically transformed both Europe and the Americas forever. Exploration, conceived as global travel toward discovery, promises to yield superb material for this year's History Day projects.

While explorers, their journeys, and the consequences of those journeys offer worthy topics for History Day projects, however, we encourage any student that decides on a project related to exploration of the Americas and elsewhere to consider the other parts of the theme as well. By definition, "encounters" are often as unexpected and unpredictable as exploration itself, and they can reveal much about the views and belief systems of those involved in them. When Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, a pair of explorers from a much different age than Columbus, began their exploration of western North America in May 1804, almost nothing of the vast territory west of the Mississippi River was known to the people of the United States. The Lewis and Clark encounter with the western territory, however, was shaped in part by individuals like Sacagawea, a Shoshone woman who understood much about the land and its inhabitants and served as a guide and translator for their expedition. How did this Native American influence their encounters with other Native Americans? With the plants and animals they encountered along the way? How did their notes and drawings of the geography, wildlife, and inhabitants influence the encounters of later Americans in the region? An illuminating History Day exhibit on the observations of members of the Lewis and Clark expedition might focus on both the exploration and encounter aspects of the theme.

Encounters that occurred in the Americas between the fifteenth and nineteenth centuries often involved peoples, plants, and animals that had no previous interaction with each other.

Yet, encounters so often occur between familiar parties — the United States Civil War offers one such example of an encounter between peoples that were well aware of each other's cultures. From classical times, Greece offers similar examples of such encounters. A History Day project might examine how political, social, and cultural differences between the Athenians and the Spartans, differences of which each side was familiar, affected the way the Peloponnesian War was waged. How did military encounters differ from environmental and cultural encounters in their consequences? Solid projects will consider the ways explorations and encounters remained the same across time, as well as how they varied with changing historical circumstances.



Explorations and encounters often lead to the exchange of objects and ideas. Exchange, in the sense of something given in return for something else, has taken place countless times in history in physical and non-physical ways, in ways influenced by culture, society, and economics. The Silk Road, a series of ancient routes connecting the lands bordering the Pacific Ocean to those of the Mediterranean Sea, formed a means of exchange between European, Eurasian, and Asian peoples for more than a thousand years. The Silk Road brought gunpowder, the magnetic compass, printing press, and silk to the West. To China, it brought precious stones, furs, and horses. One of the route's most famous travelers, Marco Polo, recorded his observations in his *Travels of Marco Polo.* A project on the Silk Road could focus on the exchanges among peoples all along the route, or discuss Marco Polo's encounters and exchanges as recorded in his *Travels.*

Dramatic exchanges, of course, also can be found in the history of ideas. Czechoslovakia and its successor, the Czech Republic, like many former Communist countries, drew many political ideas from western democracies. A History Day performance might focus on the ways former Czech President Vaclav Havel's political views drew on existing republican ideas as his country's political system shifted from communist to republican.

While History Day projects could focus on any one part of the theme, some topics might be best explored by considering all three, exploration, encounter, and exchange. All three parts of the theme can be explored fruitfully, for example, in projects related to the migrations of peoples triggered by industrial revolution and the rise of global capitalism over the past three centuries. Such technological and economic transformation deeply influenced the nature of work and compelled peoples that had labored on farms for several generations to explore new means of making a living. Such migrations generated encounters between people of dramatically different backgrounds and worldviews. Irish women, for example, left their poverty-stricken homeland for the United States in search of work throughout the nineteenth century. Working as domestics for the expanding United States middle class, these women often absorbed ideas about success from their more economically comfortable American employers. By contrast, Italian immigrant women to the United States modified social and cultural prohibitions against their laboring outside the home by taking in "homework," to be completed around the kitchen table by family members. Different groups of immigrants, a performance or documentary might show, handled the encounters of the industrial age by altering and adapting traditional ideas of exchange.

The scope of historical exchanges, of course, can stretch beyond the human experience to involve entire ecosystems. The exchange of plants, animals, and diseases that occurred between the Americas, Europe, and Africa following Columbus' transatlantic voyage offer many fertile topics for History Day projects. From the Americas to Europe went potatoes, tomatoes, maize, tobacco and syphilis. Europeans brought horses, cattle, smallpox, turnips, sugar, and coffee to the Americas. African slaves were forced to work sugar and tobacco plantations in the Americas, in turn carrying many of their agricultural practices to such plantations. A paper or exhibit might detail the impact of this global exchange on the cultures of Europeans, Native Americans, Africans, or the natural environment.

Yet another form of exploration, scientific, has transformed the way many of us have encountered our environment. Rachel Carson combined scientific research abilities with writing talent to offer the United States and the wider world a deeper understanding of the effects of chemicals on the environment. Her book *Silent Spring*, published in 1962, described how the crop pesticide DDT remained toxic in the environment long after performing its original function. A project might focus on Carson's exploration of the effects of pesticides on the environment, the kinds of encounters between humans and the environment her findings revealed, or the encounters and exchanges her work triggered between an emerging environmentalist movement and the chemical industry.

The search for new modes of movement has captivated humans since the beginnings of recorded time. This form of exploration has resulted in the invention of a range of vehicles that would make excellent subjects for History Day projects this year. From the invention of the wheel more than 5,000 years ago to the most recent launch of the United States' space shuttle lies a range of explorations, encounters, and exchanges. What effects did the invention of the wheel have on commercial encounters and exchanges? How did the design of longships affect the Vikings' encounters with non-Vikings? Ships, trains, cars, airplanes, and rockets each dramatically transformed ideas about what kinds of exploration were possible, the encounters their users had with other peoples and the environment, and the kinds of exchanges experienced in the world as a result of the development of these new modes of transport.

As this brief "exploration" into this year's theme suggests, it is a broad one, so topics should be carefully selected and developed in ways that best reflect students' talents and abilities. Whether a topic is a well-known event in world history or focuses on a little-known individual from a small community, students should be careful to place them into historical perspective, examine the significance of their topics in history, and show in their projects development over time. Studies should include an investigation into available primary and secondary sources, analysis of the evidence, and a clear explanation of the relationship of the topic to the theme, *Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History*. Students may then develop papers, performances, documentaries, and exhibits for entry into National History Day competitions.

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Refer to Web site for local contest dates and information

National Contest: June 13-17, 2004

Sample Topics for this Year's National History Day Theme

Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History

The following list is intended to provide students with examples of the sorts of topics that might work for this year's History Day theme. Choosing one of the topics below will not increase or decrease a student's chances of doing well at a History Day contest.

- Commodore Matthew Perry and Exchange with Japan
- The Transcontinental Railroad: Connecting East and West
- James Cook and the European Encounter with Oceania
- Exploration and Ice: Encountering the North Pole
- The Magellan Spacecraft and the Planet Venus
- The Silk Road and Cultural Exchange
- American Missionaries, China, and Religious Encounters
- Exploring Faith: The Mormon Encounter with the West
- Sigmund Freud: Exploring the Mind
- Galileo: Exploring the Universe, Encountering Resistance
- Athens and Sparta: Military Encounter and Exchange
- The Boxer Rebellion: China's Encounter with Western Power
- Alexander the Great, Military Encounter, and Cultural Exchange
- The New York Stock Exchange: Money as Power
- Exploring the Boundaries of Theater: Bertolt Brecht Expands the Stage
- Margaret Mead: Exploring Human Development
- Diplomatic Encounter: The SALT Talks
- Encounters with Nature: The Creation of FEMA
- Exploring New Opportunities: Women in the Military
- Britain, France, Native America: The Seven Years' War
- Glorious Revolution, Exchange of Power
- Exchange between France and the United States: The Louisiana Purchase
- Exploring the Skies: The First Flight
- Marco Polo, Venice, and China
- Fateful Exchange: Zimmerman's Telegram
- Hip Encounters: Elvis, the Blues, and Rock & Roll
- Exploring African-American Culture: The Harlem Renaissance
- Intimate Exchange: The Letters of Abigail and John Adams
- Encountering Electricity: Thomas Edison and the Light Bulb
- Expanding the Boundaries of Dance: Martha Graham
- Exploring the Heart: Encounters in Open Heart Surgery
- Malcolm X Encounters Africa
- The Sioux and the Fate of the Fort Laramie Treaty

- The Hawley-Smoot Tariff: Limiting Exchange
- Exploring the Atom: Nuclear Power
- The Sherman Anti-Trust Act and Corporate Exchange
- King Leopold and the Belgian Congo
- Fostering Peaceful Exchange: The Creation of the United Nations
- Encountering Civil Rights: Brown v. Board of Education
- Exploring Stronger Government: From the Articles of Confederation to the Constitution
- Exploring America: The Immigrant and the United States
- Polio Vaccine: Exploring Disease Control
- Cold War Encounters: The United States and the Soviet Union
- Encountering Apartheid: Nelson Mandela
- Exploration in Science: Marie Curie Encounters Radium
- Encounter in Little Rock: Desegregating Central High School
- Lexington and Concord: Redcoats and Patriots
- Silver and Gold: Currency in the Late-Nineteenth Century United States
- Exploring the Past: Herodotus and History
- Exploring Society through Literature: Charles Dickens
- Encountering the Environment: Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring*
- Encouraging Economic Exchange: The Marshall Plan in Postwar Europe
- Jane Goodall: Encounter with Primates
- Corn, Potatoes, and Chocolate: Europe's Culinary Encounter with the New World
- Encountering Communism: The Creation of NATO
- Exploring New Political Ideas: Locke, Hobbes, and Rousseau

w York State History Da

Exploring NARA's Online Catalog, ARC, for Primary Sources

By Dorothy Dougherty
National Archives and Records Administration

One of the best places to locate primary sources for your National History Day project is at the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA). NARA preserves and provides access to millions of permanently valuable records that document the history of the United States. These records are stored in the Washington, D.C. area and throughout the country at our Regional Archives and Presidential Libraries. Access to information about many of our records also is available online. You can search, retrieve, and download descriptions or digital images of NARA's holdings through the Archival Research Catalog (ARC). ARC is available through NARA's Web site **http://www.archives.gov.** Use the drop-down menu bar to select the Archival Research Catalog main page. Once at the ARC main page, click on the yellow "SEARCH" button to begin your search.

ARC vs. Internet Search Engines

It is important to note that just as a researcher must go to a library catalog to search for a particular item, researchers also must go to an archival catalog or finding aid to look for particular archival materials. Because ARC is a database, not a Web page, an Internet search engine like Google or Yahoo will not find the descriptions and images contained in ARC.

Background

ARC replaced the prototype catalog, the NARA Archival Information Locator (NAIL), in September 2002. Currently ARC includes about 600,000 descriptions and 124,000 images, which represent roughly 20 percent of the materials at NARA. These descriptions include a variety of media from textual records to photographic materials to sound recordings and moving-image materials.

ARC includes broad descriptions of record groups and collections as well as more detailed file unit and item level descriptions. A record group or collection is a grouping created by NARA that comprises the records of an organization, such as a government bureau or independent agency, or of an individual. A series is a smaller grouping of materials found within a record group or collection and is basically a filing system. Series level descriptions include smaller aggregates known as file units or single items. For example, a record group may be the Records of the U.S. Geological Survey. A series may be of photographs of a particular geological survey that were filed together by the creating organization. An item would be a single photograph within that series. Unfortunately, we do not have the resources to describe all our holdings at the item level. However, ARC will eventually include descriptions for all of NARA's holdings at the series level.

ARC descriptions serve as a guide for learning about NARA's holdings. In some instances, the descriptions provide a great amount of information about the records, such as detailed scope and content notes and links to other related descriptions. In other instances, descriptions contain digital images of the records themselves. Researchers can view and download these images directly. The descriptions also can be used for ordering copies of the records. For example, ARC provides descriptions of thousands of motion pictures, but to actually view these films or videos you will need to visit NARA or order a copy.

Searching in ARC

To help users understand what ARC represents, we created three Web pages called "Data in ARC," "Search hints for ARC," and "Digital Highlights in ARC." These Web pages are available from the ARC main page and explain in great detail what is in ARC and how to use the catalog. ARC contains a glossary to help explain archival terms. Search Tips and Help links also provide detailed explanations for searching in ARC.

We recommend you always try a variety of searches to make sure you are finding all relevant descriptions in ARC. Start with a broad search consisting of one or two keywords. Then narrow your search by adding additional keywords or filters. For example, you can add a filter to narrow your results to digital images only. You also can change the results limit from 100 hits to 1000 or 2000 hits.

TIP: Download the ARC PDF Search Tips sheet for a quick reference tool to use while searching.

Using the theme of *Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History,* let's select a topic based on early explorations and geological studies undertaken by civilians and the federal government. Ferdinand Hayden led one particularly famous survey that started with Nebraska and later was extended to include the territories of Wyoming, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, and Colorado. Eventually, the survey fell under the guidance of the U.S. Geological Survey. (The federal government established the U. S. Geological Survey as a result of many individual groups exploring and documenting the western lands.)

So let's search ARC for materials on the Hayden Survey.

Activity 1

The first search example is of a basic keyword search without using any filters. This includes descriptions with and without digital images.

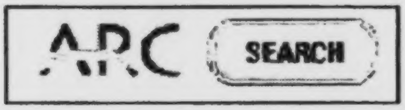
Activity 2

The second search example is a basic keyword search applying the digital copy filter. By using the digital copy filter the "Results" page will appear in thumbnail images for quick reference.

Activity 1. Search ARC using a keyword search and no filters.

Step 1

Go to the ARC Main page at **http://www.archives.gov/research_room/arc/index.html.** Press the yellow "SEARCH" button to bring up the "Basic Search" screen.

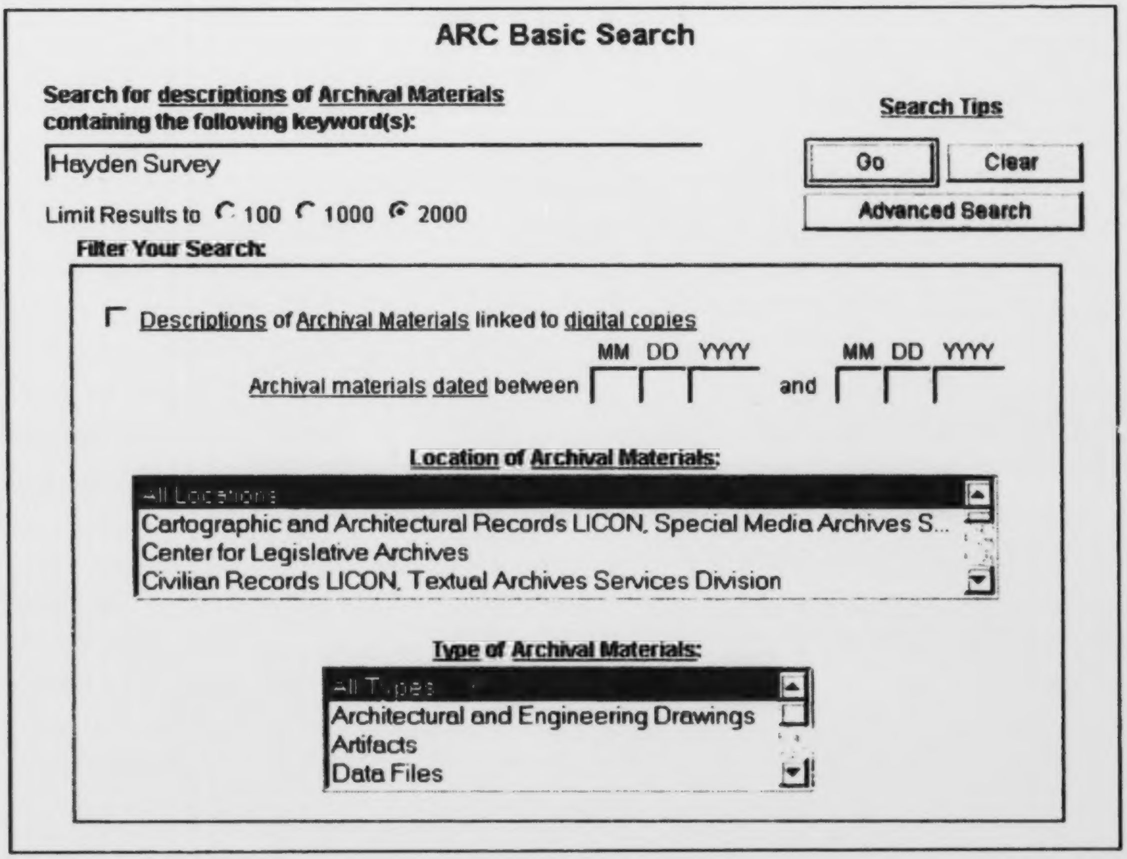


Additional Topic Ideas/ Keywords for Searching in ARC

Lewis and Clark, Virginia Plan, Northwest Ordinance, Louisiana Purchase, Alaskan Purchase, Oregon Trail, Homestead Act 1862, Gold Rush, U.S. Geological Survey, Powell Survey, King Survey, Wheeler Survey, Robert E. Peary, Alden sketches, Central and Pacific Railroads, Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, National Park Service (or National Parks such as Yosemite or Yellowstone), John Muir, Ansel Adams, Colorado River, Missouri River, Mississippi River, Documerica, Atomic Energy Commission, Space Exploration, Manned Flight, John Glenn.

Step 2

On the "Basic Search" screen, enter any term for which you want to search in the keyword box. For example, enter the search phrase: Hayden Survey. Change the "Limit Results" radio button to 2000 hits. Press the "Go" Button.



ARC Basic Search

Search for descriptions of Archival Materials containing the following keyword(s):

Hayden Survey

Limit Results to ○ 100 ○ 1000 ● 2000

Filter Your Search:

☐ Descriptions of Archival Materials linked to digital copies

Archival materials dated between MM DD YYYY and MM DD YYYY

Location of Archival Materials:

- All Locations
- Cartographic and Architectural Records LICON, Special Media Archives S...
- Center for Legislative Archives
- Civilian Records LICON, Textual Archives Services Division

Type of Archival Materials:

- All Types
- Architectural and Engineering Drawings
- Artifacts
- Data Files

Check out

the Search Tips link for examples of combining Keyword searches and in using exact-phrase searches.

Hint: Try variations of terms related to your topic. For example:

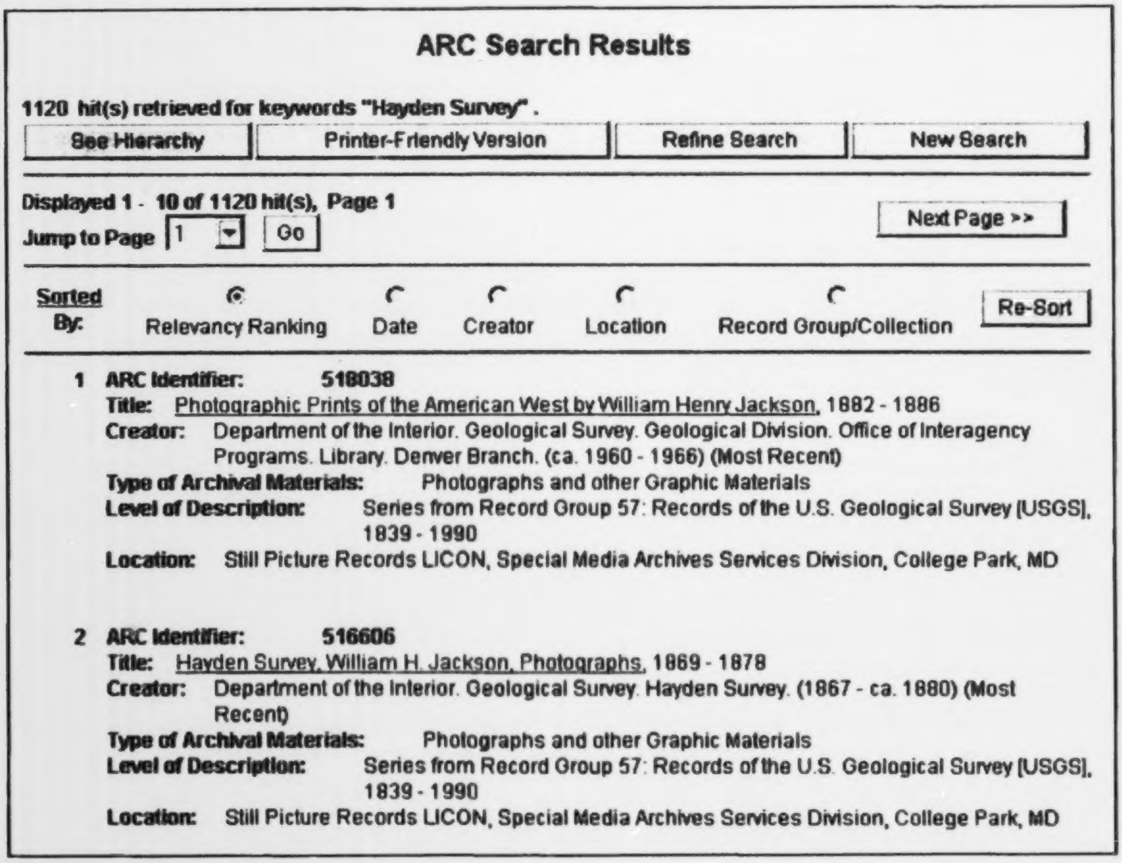
To combine terms use AND, OR, and NOT, Enter: Hayden and Survey

To combine variations of a term enter: Ferdinand V. Hayden or Ferdinand Hayden

To use an exact phrase search use curly brackets around the phrase: {Ferdinand V. Hayden}

Step 3

The "ARC Search Results" page will appear with a brief listing of relevant hits. ARC displays up to 10 hits per page. Browse down the list on the screen using the scroll bar on the right. Browse through all the hits using the navigation buttons for "Next Page" and "Previous Page" located at the top of the screen. When you find a description that interests you, you can click on the "Title" hyperlink to view the full description. In this example, click on the title "Hayden Survey, William H. Jackson Photographs" to read more about the archival materials.



ARC Search Results

1120 hit(s) retrieved for keywords "Hayden Survey".

Displayed 1 - 10 of 1120 hit(s), Page 1

Jump to Page 1

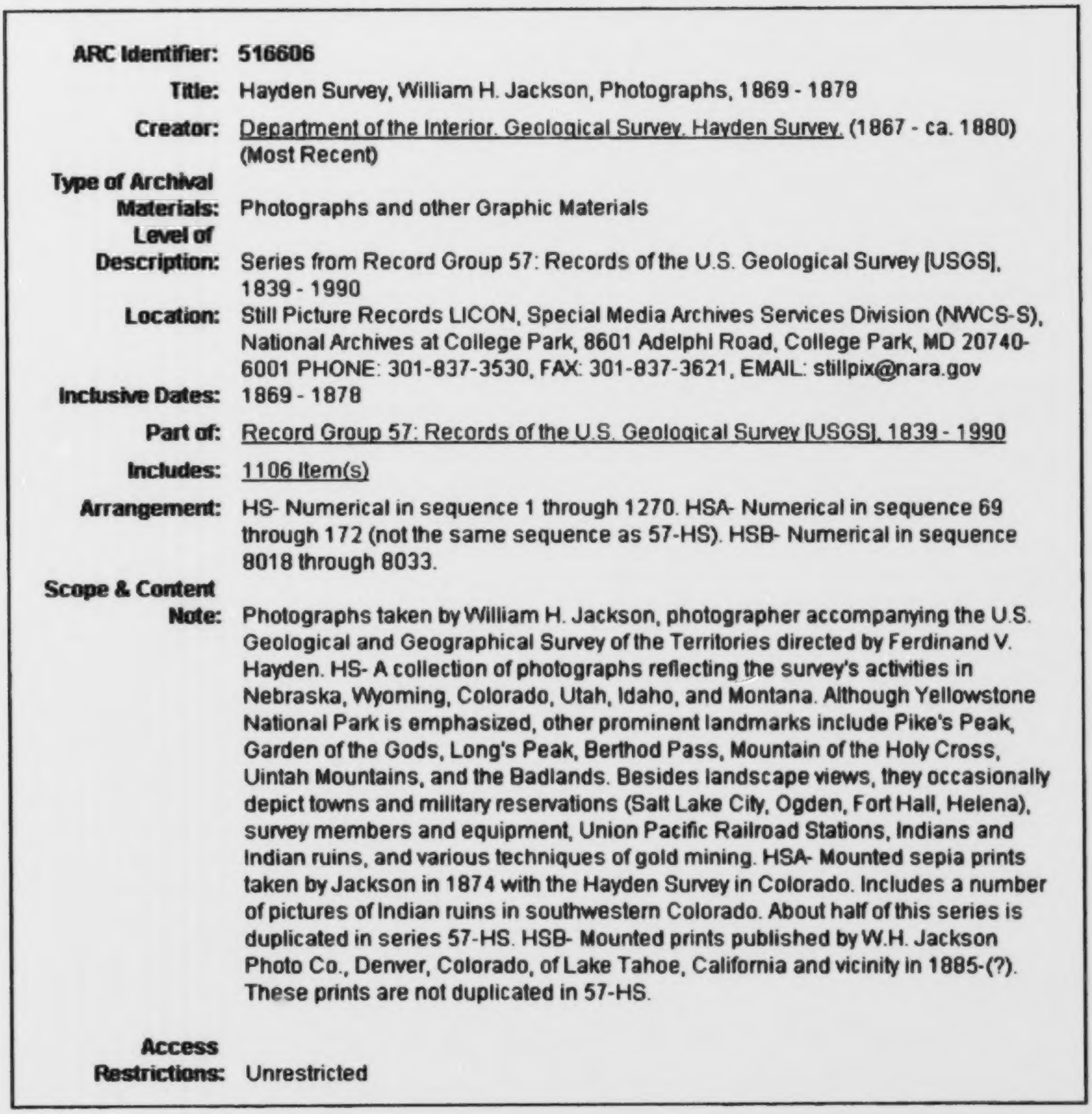
Sorted By: ● Relevancy Ranking ○ Date ○ Creator ○ Location ○ Record Group/Collection

1 **ARC Identifier:** 518038
Title: Photographic Prints of the American West by William Henry Jackson, 1882 - 1886
Creator: Department of the Interior. Geological Survey. Geological Division. Office of Interagency Programs. Library. Denver Branch. (ca. 1960 - 1966) (Most Recent)
Type of Archival Materials: Photographs and other Graphic Materials
Level of Description: Series from Record Group 57: Records of the U.S. Geological Survey [USGS], 1839 - 1990
Location: Still Picture Records LICON, Special Media Archives Services Division, College Park, MD

2 **ARC Identifier:** 516606
Title: Hayden Survey, William H. Jackson, Photographs, 1869 - 1878
Creator: Department of the Interior. Geological Survey. Hayden Survey. (1867 - ca. 1880) (Most Recent)
Type of Archival Materials: Photographs and other Graphic Materials
Level of Description: Series from Record Group 57: Records of the U.S. Geological Survey [USGS], 1839 - 1990
Location: Still Picture Records LICON, Special Media Archives Services Division, College Park, MD

Step 4

From the full description page, you also can view related records by clicking on the "Includes" link. For example, this series includes 1,106 items described in ARC.



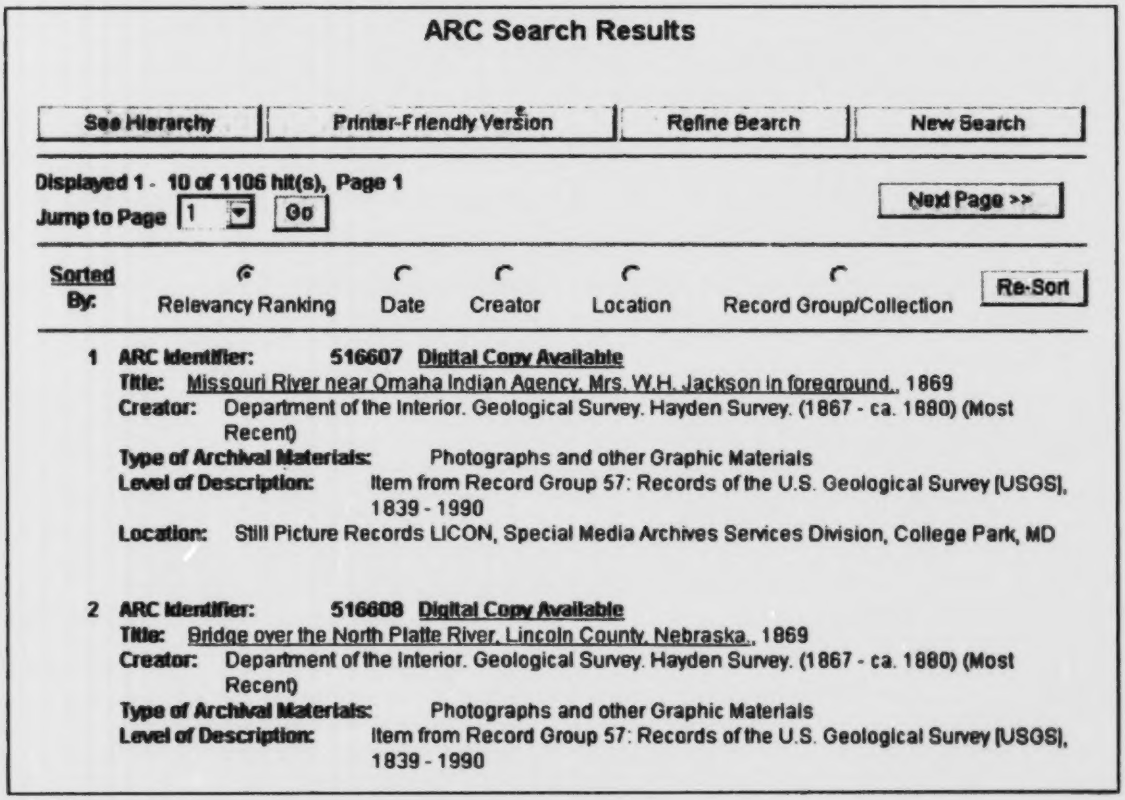
ARC Identifier:	**516606**
Title:	Hayden Survey, William H. Jackson, Photographs, 1869 - 1878
Creator:	Department of the Interior. Geological Survey. Hayden Survey. (1867 - ca. 1880) (Most Recent)
Type of Archival Materials:	Photographs and other Graphic Materials
Level of Description:	Series from Record Group 57: Records of the U.S. Geological Survey [USGS], 1839 - 1990
Location:	Still Picture Records LICON, Special Media Archives Services Division (NWCS-S), National Archives at College Park, 8601 Adelphi Road, College Park, MD 20740-6001 PHONE: 301-837-3530, FAX: 301-837-3621, EMAIL: stillpix@nara.gov
Inclusive Dates:	1869 - 1878
Part of:	Record Group 57: Records of the U.S. Geological Survey [USGS], 1839 - 1990
Includes:	1106 Item(s)
Arrangement:	HS- Numerical in sequence 1 through 1270. HSA- Numerical in sequence 69 through 172 (not the same sequence as 57-HS). HSB- Numerical in sequence 8018 through 8033.
Scope & Content Note:	Photographs taken by William H. Jackson, photographer accompanying the U.S. Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories directed by Ferdinand V. Hayden. HS- A collection of photographs reflecting the survey's activities in Nebraska, Wyoming, Colorado, Utah, Idaho, and Montana. Although Yellowstone National Park is emphasized, other prominent landmarks include Pike's Peak, Garden of the Gods, Long's Peak, Berthod Pass, Mountain of the Holy Cross, Uintah Mountains, and the Badlands. Besides landscape views, they occasionally depict towns and military reservations (Salt Lake City, Ogden, Fort Hall, Helena), survey members and equipment, Union Pacific Railroad Stations, Indians and Indian ruins, and various techniques of gold mining. HSA- Mounted sepia prints taken by Jackson in 1874 with the Hayden Survey in Colorado. Includes a number of pictures of Indian ruins in southwestern Colorado. About half of this series is duplicated in series 57-HS. HSB- Mounted prints published by W.H. Jackson Photo Co., Denver, Colorado, of Lake Tahoe, California and vicinity in 1885-(?). These prints are not duplicated in 57-HS.
Access Restrictions:	Unrestricted

Click on any link in the description for more information, such as the "Creator," "Part of" and "Includes" link.

Look at the "Scope & Content Note" for ideas for other keywords to search on, such as Union Pacific Railroad.

Step 5

When you click on the "Includes" link, you will get another hit list of all the item descriptions and their digital images, if available. Again, ARC displays up to 10 hits per page.



ARC Search Results

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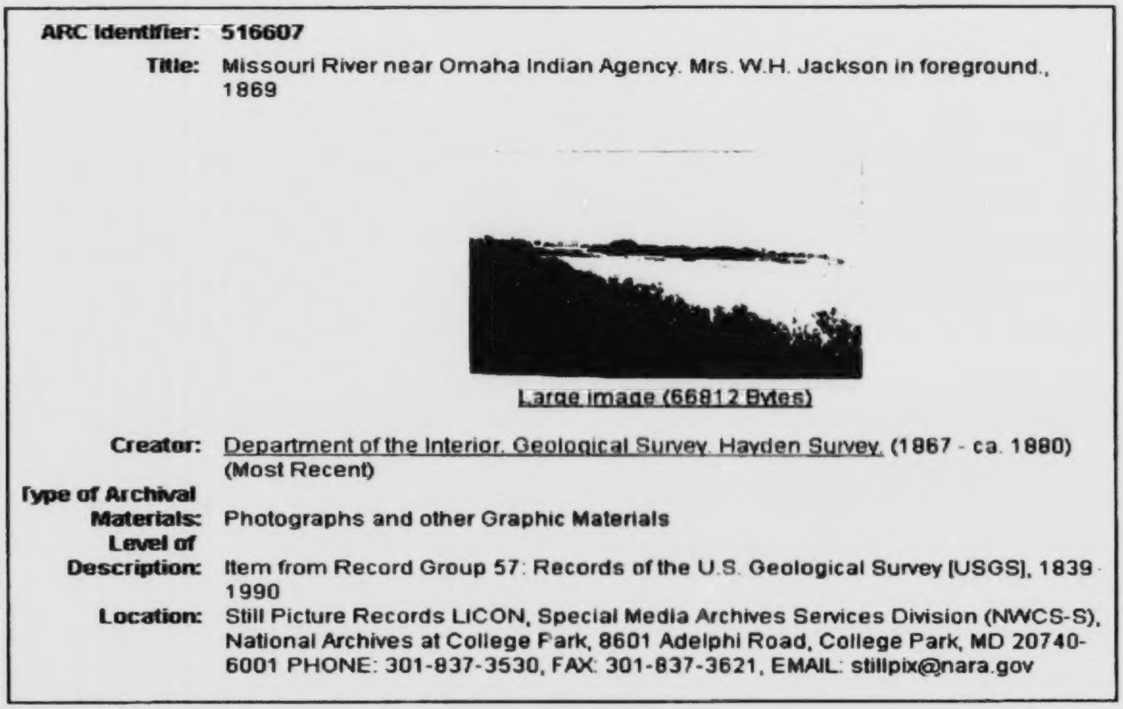
1 **ARC Identifier:** 516607 Digital Copy Available
Title: Missouri River near Omaha Indian Agency. Mrs. W.H. Jackson in foreground., 1869
Creator: Department of the Interior. Geological Survey. Hayden Survey. (1867 - ca. 1880) (Most Recent)
Type of Archival Materials: Photographs and other Graphic Materials
Level of Description: Item from Record Group 57: Records of the U.S. Geological Survey [USGS], 1839 - 1990
Location: Still Picture Records LICON, Special Media Archives Services Division, College Park, MD

2 **ARC Identifier:** 516608 Digital Copy Available
Title: Bridge over the North Platte River, Lincoln County, Nebraska., 1869
Creator: Department of the Interior. Geological Survey. Hayden Survey. (1867 - ca. 1880) (Most Recent)
Type of Archival Materials: Photographs and other Graphic Materials
Level of Description: Item from Record Group 57: Records of the U.S. Geological Survey [USGS], 1839 - 1990

Step 6

Click on "Title" to view the full item description and the image. You also could click on the "Digital Copy Available" link to view just the image.



ARC Identifier: 516607

Title: Missouri River near Omaha Indian Agency. Mrs. W.H. Jackson in foreground., 1869

Creator: Department of the Interior. Geological Survey. Hayden Survey. (1867 - ca. 1880) (Most Recent)

Type of Archival Materials: Photographs and other Graphic Materials

Level of Description: Item from Record Group 57: Records of the U.S. Geological Survey [USGS], 1839 - 1990

Location: Still Picture Records LICON, Special Media Archives Services Division (NWCS-S), National Archives at College Park, 8601 Adelphi Road, College Park, MD 20740-6001 PHONE: 301-837-3530, FAX: 301-837-3621, EMAIL: stillpix@nara.gov

Activity 2. Search ARC using the digital copy filter.

Step 1

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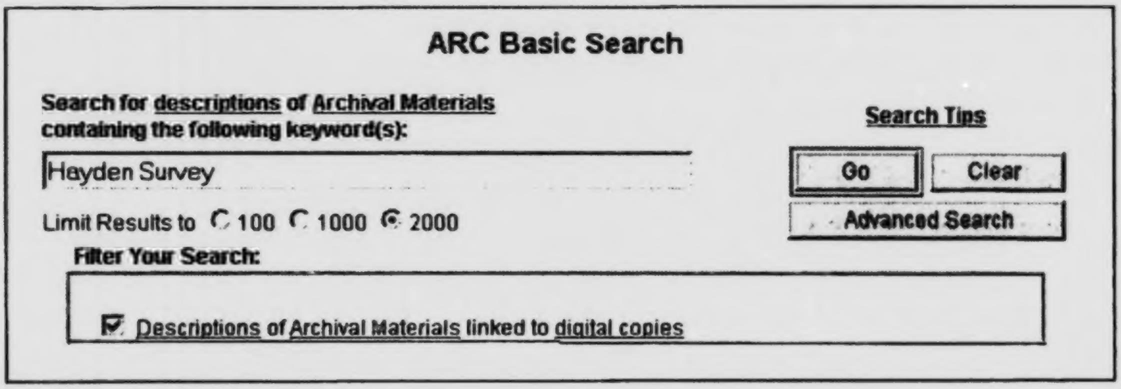

ARC Basic Search

Search for descriptions of Archival Materials containing the following keyword(s): Hayden Survey

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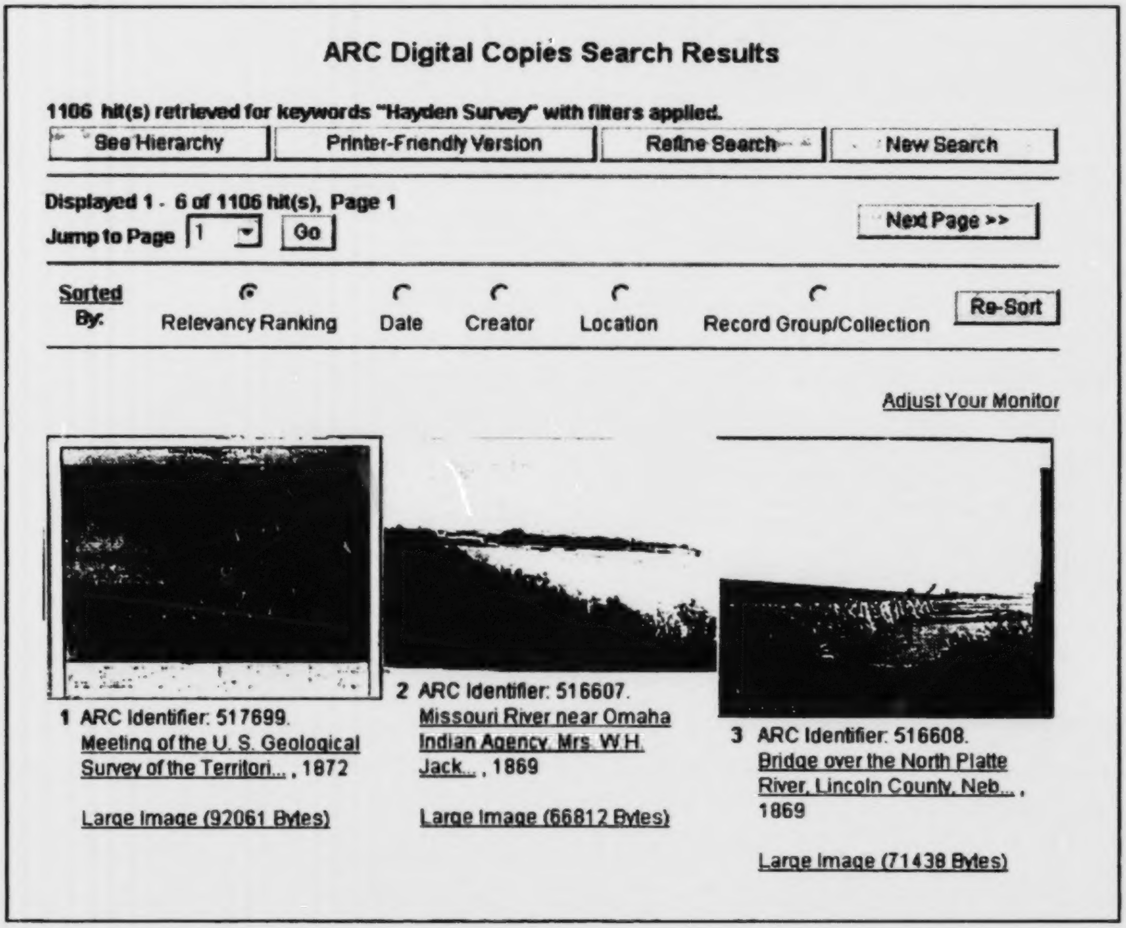

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Large Image (66812 Bytes)

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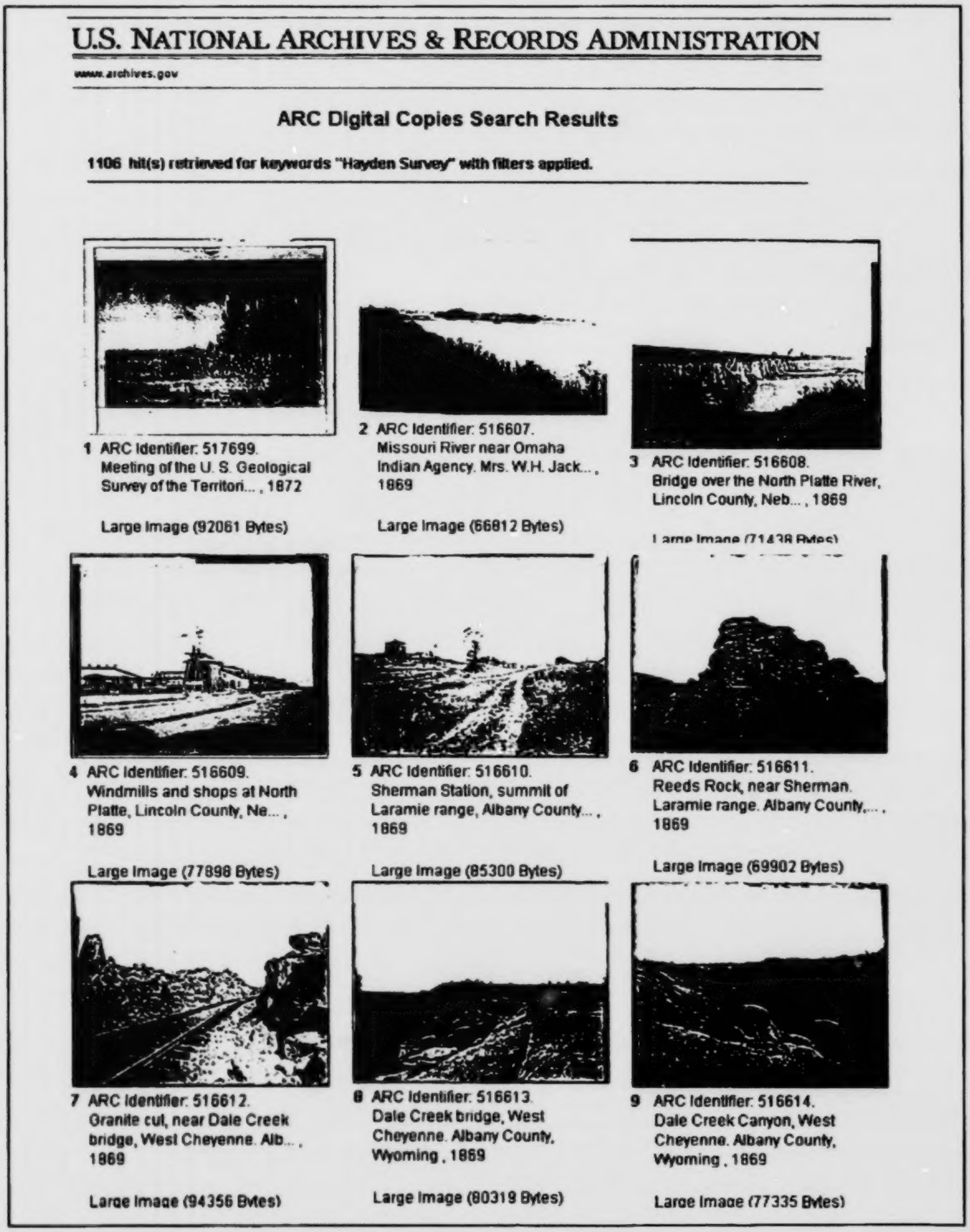

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2 ARC Identifier: 516607.
Missouri River near Omaha Indian Agency. Mrs. W.H. Jack... , 1869

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3 ARC Identifier: 516608.
Bridge over the North Platte River, Lincoln County, Neb... , 1869

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4 ARC Identifier: 516609.
Windmills and shops at North Platte, Lincoln County, Ne... , 1869

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5 ARC Identifier: 516610.
Sherman Station, summit of Laramie range, Albany County... , 1869

Large Image (85300 Bytes)

6 ARC Identifier: 516611.
Reeds Rock, near Sherman. Laramie range. Albany County,... , 1869

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7 ARC Identifier: 516612.
Granite cut, near Dale Creek bridge, West Cheyenne. Alb... , 1869

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Dale Creek bridge, West Cheyenne. Albany County, Wyoming , 1869

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Dale Creek Canyon, West Cheyenne. Albany County, Wyoming , 1869

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* * *

Russia's March to the Pacific

By John Van Oudenaren
Meeting of Frontiers Project Director
The Library of Congress

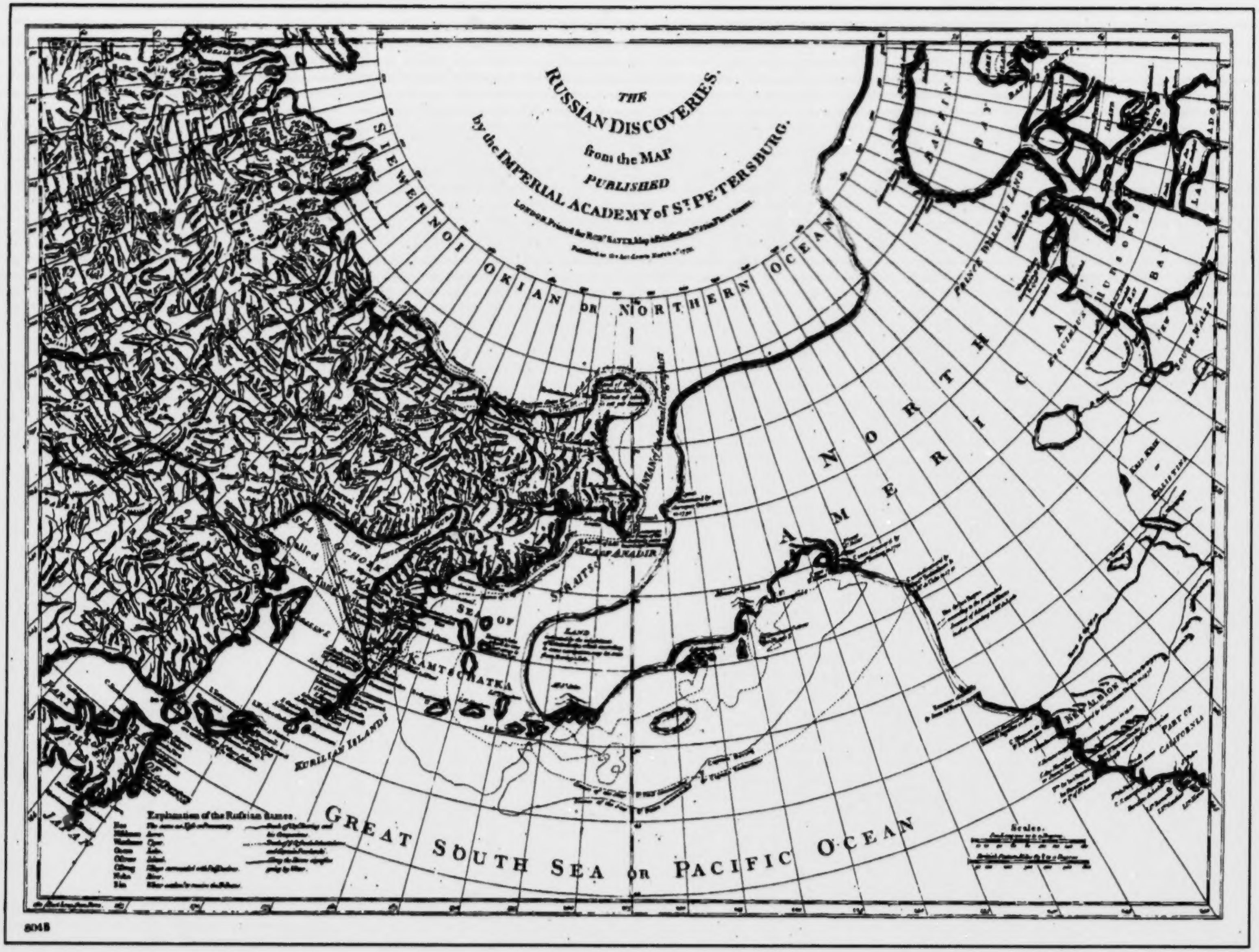
For many Americans, "Siberia" conjures up images of snow and ice, vast empty spaces, and the prison camps of Tsarist Russia and Stalin's Soviet Union. But like the American West, Siberia is a huge region that defies simple generalizations. Along with the frozen tundra, it contains vast forests, rich farmland, and even large cities.

For centuries, nomadic peoples such as the Huns and Mongols had emerged from central Asia and surged westward, conquering lands that comprise present-day Ukraine, Russia, and beyond. By the late sixteenth century, however, an increasingly powerful Russian state organized around Moscow began to push eastward. In 1581, the Slavic-speaking Cossack chieftain Ermak Timofeevich crossed the Urals and defeated the forces of the Khanate of Sibir'. Attracted by the rich store of furs that could be sold on European markets, the Russians began building a network of fortified towns and outposts across Siberia. The first Russian city in Siberia, Tiumen', was founded in 1586.

Like the American pioneers heading westward, Russian frontiersmen took a variety of routes as they pushed eastward. Trappers and traders traveled along the east-west tributaries of the great Siberian rivers — the Ob, Irtysh, Enisei, and Lena — that flow northward to the Arctic Ocean. Other explorers traveled by sea along the northern coast of Siberia. By 1639, a Russian group under the command of Ivan Moskvitin had reached the shores of the Pacific, and in 1648 Semen Dezhnev traversed the straits separating the Chukotka Peninsula from North America, without knowing, however, that he had rounded the most northeastern point of Asia. (At that time, geographers and explorers were still unsure whether North America and Asia were connected, or if they were separate continents.)

The icebound trek along the northern coast and the overland route across Siberia both were enormously difficult and time-consuming. To reach the Pacific by the overland route, travelers left European Russia in late spring. In June they crossed the Volga, and in July they reached the Urals. In August they reached the banks of the Ob. Crossing the Ob and the Enesei, they reached Irkutsk in October. There they waited for the rivers to freeze before heading to Yakutsk by sled on the Lena River. In Yakutsk, they waited out the extreme cold of winter and the impassable mud of early spring. In June they resumed their journey, traveling by reindeer or on horseback with the help of experienced native Siberian (Yakut) guides and porters. After crossing the steep mountains east of the Lena, in August — some 15 months after starting out — the travelers would reach the city of Okhotsk on the Pacific.

From their vantage on the Pacific, some Russians ventured even farther. In 1728, Vitus Bering, a Danish sea captain in the service of the Russian state, sailed through the strait that later came to bear his name. On a later expedition, in 1741, Bering sailed along the Alaska coast and claimed all of the territory west of present-day Mt. St. Elias for his country. Russia subsequently managed to supply and administer its first and only overseas colonial possession — Russian America


THE
RUSSIAN DISCOVERIES.
from the MAP
PUBLISHED
by the IMPERIAL ACADEMY of ST PETERSBURG.
SIEWERNOI OKIAN OR NORTHERN OCEAN
NORTH AMERICA
BAFFINS BAY
PRINCE WILLIAMS LAND
HUDSONS BAY
ESQUIMAUX
NEW SOUTH WALES
NEW ALBION
PART OF CALIFORNIA
SEA OF ANADIR
STRAITS
SEA OF OCHOTSK
KAMTSCHATKA
KURILIAN ISLANDS
JAPAN
GREAT SOUTH SEA OR PACIFIC OCEAN
Explanation of the Russian Names.
Scales.
8048

Map 1 – *Russian discoveries map, 1775. This map was intended to show the great accomplishments of the Russian voyages of discovery in the North Pacific, which helped to create a much more complete geographic understanding of the extremities — and proximity — of Russia and America. The map also is available on the Web site:* **http://frontiers.loc.gov.** *(Library of Congress)*

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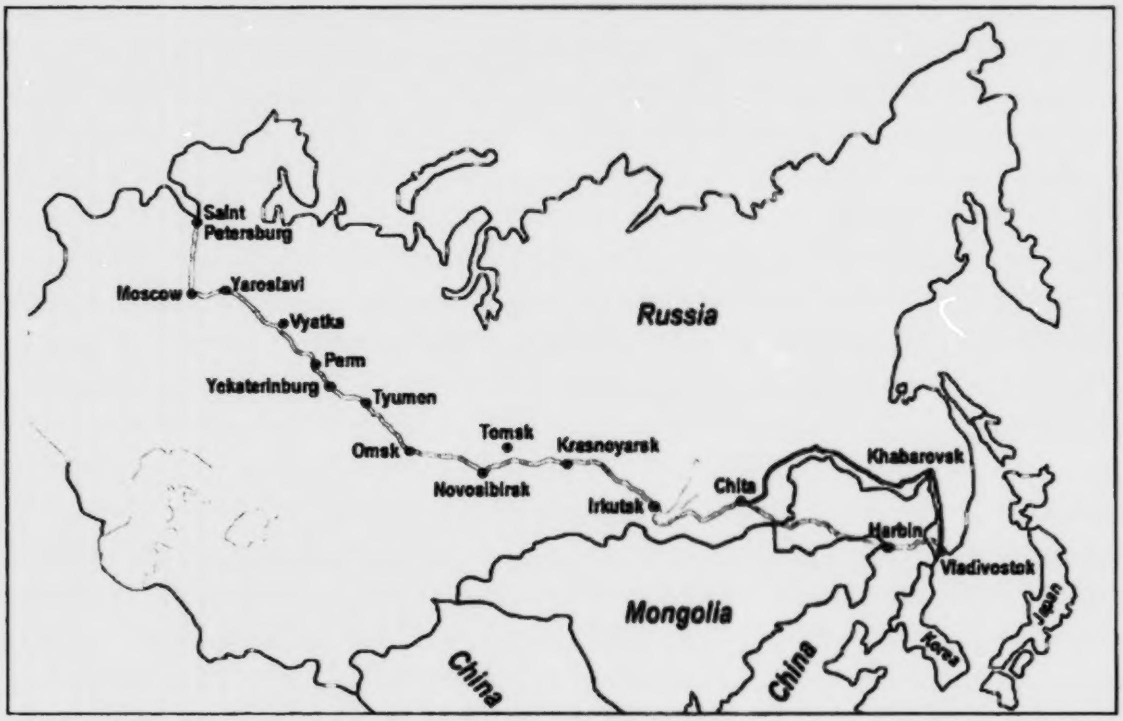

Map 2 – *The Trans-Siberian Railroad in the early twentieth century. (Library of Congress)*

or present-day Alaska — by sending supplies and men along the pathways across Siberia blazed in the previous century by the fur traders and trappers. A look at **Map 1** *(page 21)*, which was published by the Imperial Academy of St. Petersburg in 1775, offers us an idea as to how the Russians saw the continents of Russia and North America in the eighteenth century.

From 1803 to 1806, Captain Johann von Krusenstern of the Imperial Russian navy pioneered a new route to Russia's Pacific territories while completing the first Russian circumnavigation of the globe. Traveling west from St. Petersburg around the tip of South America, Krusenstern's small ship stopped in Hawaii before reaching Russia's Pacific coast. A second ship that was part of Krusenstern's expedition visited Russian America. From this time onward, there were two ways by which European Russians could travel to the eastern reaches of the empire: the arduous overland route and a longer but generally safer passage across the Atlantic and the Pacific.

Up to the time when Russia finally sold Russian America to the United States in 1867, it organized 40 such voyages around the world. Scientists often traveled on these ships, sketching and collecting specimens of the plants and wildlife encountered along the way. These scientists also drew upon the profound, although unwritten, knowledge that the native peoples had of their natural surroundings. In 1816-1817, for example, the poet and naturalist Adelbert von Chamisso (a German employed by the Russians) completed the first Western study of North Pacific whales, using knowledge he obtained from the Aleuts of Alaska.

In the second half of the nineteenth century, a rapidly industrializing Russia needed new and higher-capacity transportation links with Sibe-

Nanai Village Chieftan, Russia, 1895. The Nanai natives of Far Eastern Siberia suffered great population losses after their hunting grounds were depleted, their fishing grounds taken away, and their communities exposed to epidemic diseases such as smallpox. After assimilation, intermarriage, forced resettlement, and the destruction of their traditional means of livelihood, only some 12,000 Nanai of mixed origins now exist, many of whom consider Russian their native language. (Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division, World's Transportation Commission Photograph Collection)

ria. Fur, although still important, was no longer the main economic attraction in Siberia. By the 1800s, large-scale agricultural settlement in the warmer and more fertile parts of southern Siberia was underway. Many of the people who moved to Siberia were official colonists sent by the government. Others were runaway serfs and members of persecuted religious groups, such as the Old Believers, fleeing the authority of the Russian state and the Russian Orthodox church. The Russian authorities also sent political dissidents and common criminals to Siberia. Many of these people died or suffered greatly from deprivation and forced labor, but others escaped or completed their sentences and started new lives as free farmers or craftsmen.

By the second half of the 1800s, the Russian government began promoting the construction of railroads from the cities of European Russia to the Urals, which were becoming an important source of minerals and other raw materials. In 1891, Emperor Aleksandr III launched Russia's most ambitious project: the Trans-Siberian Railroad that would link St. Petersburg with the Pacific port of Vladivostok. As a look at **Map 2** *(page 22)* suggests, this was an enormous construction project, much of it undertaken by forced labor, that required building hundreds of bridges and tunnels, and coping with the extreme cold of winter, the impassable mud that came with the spring thaw, and the mosquitoes of summer.

By the mid-1920s, Siberia, like the rest of Russia, was under the complete authority of the communists who had seized power in the October 1917 revolution. Far more than had been the case under the emperors, the communists sent millions of people — political dissidents, members of ethnic and religious groups that the communists did not trust — to exile and often death in Siberia. These exiles were put to work on vast new projects — mines, logging operations, hydroelectric dams, and factories — that were part of the forced industrialization

Isleta Pueblo woman, United States, 1910. The Isleta Pueblo, descended from the Natives that had been the very first migrants to the Americas thousands of years ago, are from modern day New Mexico, United States. The original native residents of both the American West and Russian Siberia did not see their lands as frontiers, but as homelands, and continue to contribute to diversity of their nations and regions. (Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division, Detroit Publishing Company Collection)

campaign of Josef Stalin. When communism collapsed in 1991, it became clear, however, that much of this industrialization had been wasteful and ineffective. Mines and factories were turning out products for which there was no real market, often bringing about enormous environmental destruction to the once pristine Siberian lakes, tundra, and forests.

As Russian settlement increased, the indigenous peoples of Siberia became minorities in what had long been their own lands. Many continued with their traditional ways of life. The Komi, Khanty, and Mansi peoples, for example, who live in the forested region east of the Urals (and who are distantly related to the Hungarians of Central Europe), were mainly hunters and fishers who also engaged in reindeer-herding. Other groups included the Sakha, a Turkic-speaking people who live in the Lena River basin, and the Chukchis who live in the far northeast of Siberia and, like their cousins in Alaska, were mainly fishermen, hunters, and trappers. While preserving much of their traditional way of life, many of these peoples also became highly assimilated with the dominant Russian population, as they learned to speak Russian and moved into specialized industrial and professional jobs in the new cities and industrial complexes.

There are many parallels between the Russian and the American frontier experiences, but also important differences. After the defeat of the Siberian khanate in the late 1500s, there was little organized resistance from the indigenous peoples to the Russian advance in Siberia, in part owing to the sparseness of the Siberian population. Russians and native peoples co-existed with each other, trading and often intermarrying. In the American West, by contrast, conflict lasted much longer, until 1877 and the defeat of the Sioux who the previous year had been victorious in the Battle of Little Bighorn. The building of the railroads also proceeded on different timetables. The United States completed the first transcontinental railroad in 1869, while the last link of the Trans-Siberian Railroad was not finished until 1904.

Many of these differences persist to the present. While California, the Pacific Northwest, and the Rocky Mountain states have long been among the most economically dynamic regions of the United States, attracting migrants from the East and Midwest as well as from overseas to work in agriculture, manufacturing, mining and energy industries, Siberia and the Russian Far East have been losing people, as uneconomic industries built up in the communist period closed down. The Russian authorities are attempting to spur economic revival by encouraging investment in such industries as oil and gas extraction, logging, and even tourism. Siberia and the Russian Far East remain sparsely populated and economically depressed, however, and some Russian politicians worry that China, with its huge population and great need for natural resources, might be tempted to move into these territories. Other Russian politicians are more optimistic, and believe that the future will be one of peaceful economic development and trade among Russia, China, Japan, South Korea, and the west coast of the United States, including Alaska. To spur such development, there are plans for gas and oil pipelines that would link Russia's energy resources with China and Japan, and even discussion of a new railroad line that would link South and North Korea to the Trans-Siberian railroad.

Another important change concerns the indigenous peoples of Siberia. As Russia has been transformed from the highly centralized state of the Soviet era into a looser federation in which regions and local governments have considerable autonomy, and as economically hard-pressed ethnic Russians have migrated back to European Russia, the original, pre-Russian identity of Siberia is beginning to reassert itself. Sakha, for example, has become a vast autonomous region, governed from Yakutsk. While remaining part of Russia, Sakha has undertaken efforts to revive the Sakha language and culture and to ensure that the wealth of Sakha – much of it based on diamond mines – stays in the region and benefits its people.

Activities

The activities can be completed using the *Meeting of Frontiers* Web site **http://frontiers.loc.gov,** created by the Library of Congress in cooperation with libraries and archives in Russia. The Web site documents the Russian movement eastward across Siberia, the parallel movement westward in the United States, and the "meeting of frontiers" in Russia and Alaska. Common themes explored include the fur trade, encounters with native peoples, the role of missionaries, gold mining, and the building of the railroads.

Teachers and students can use the site in two ways: They can follow a historical narrative: *America, Russia, and the Meeting of Frontiers* (**http://frontiers.loc.gov/intldl/mtfhtml/mfovrvw.html**), which tells the frontier story in roughly chronological order with selected illustrations, or they can search or browse whole collections of full-text books, photographs, maps, and so forth (**http://frontiers.loc.gov/intldl/mtfhtml/mfdigcol/mfdigcol.html**).

Collections include hand-drawn explorers' maps, photographs of road- and railroad-building in Siberia, photographs of indigenous peoples, and books written by early-American travelers to Siberia.

The site is bilingual — in English and Russian — and is intended to promote awareness of foreign cultures and languages. Other features include a search capability, extensive bibliography, and links to other sites.

Activity 1

Locate on a map where the various indigenous peoples of Siberia live. Discuss which of these peoples were most affected by the following Russian-initiated activities: the expansion of the fur trade; the development of an overland/river route from European Russia to the Pacific; construction of the Trans-Siberian railroad; and large-scale industrialization and exploitation of Siberia's energy, mineral, and forest resources.

Activity 2

Using political, topographic, and population density maps of Russia from the 1800s (all available on the *Meeting of Frontiers* site) map out a hypothetical route for the Trans-Siberian Railroad. Compare with the route actually chosen, and explain any differences.

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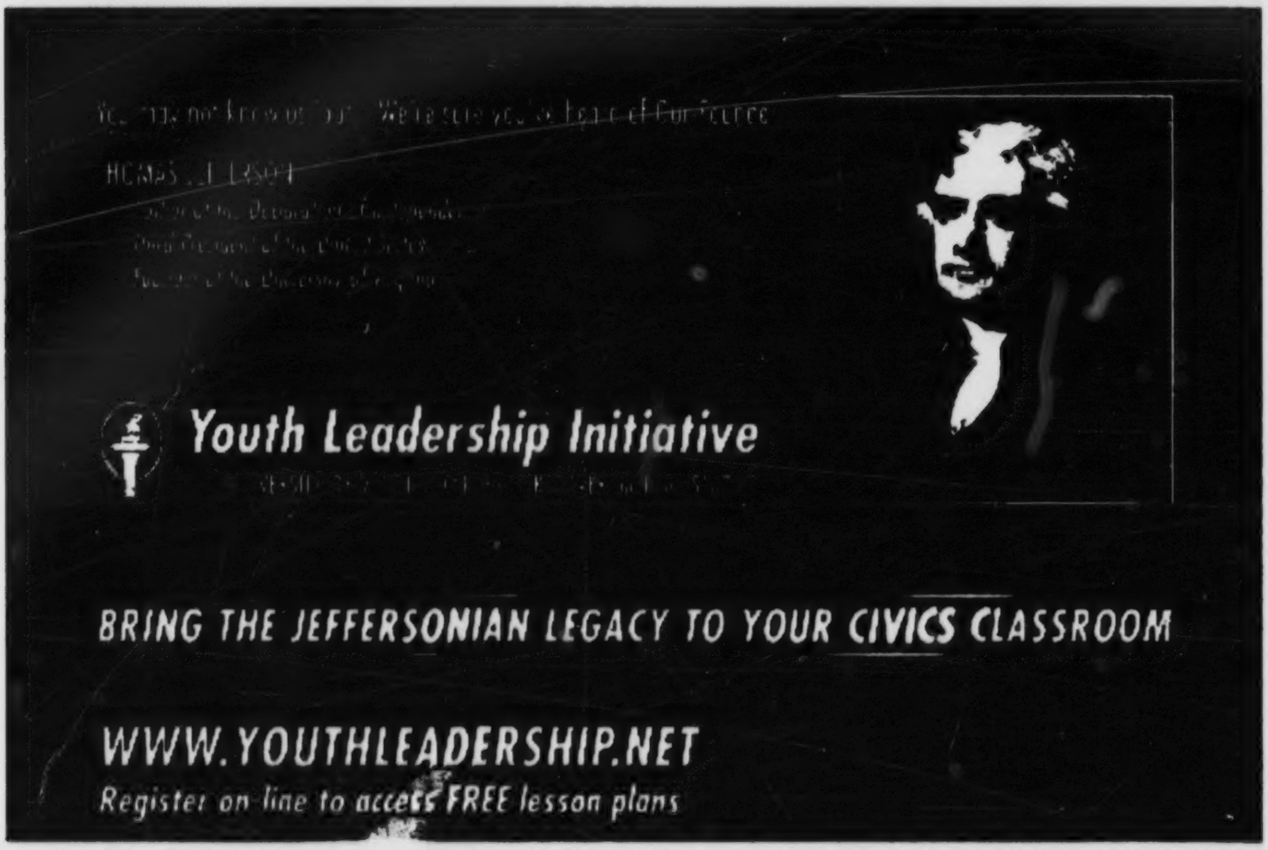
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White House Encounters on the Web

By John P. Riley
Director of Education and Scholarship Programs
White House Historical Association

In 2002, the White House West Wing marked its 100th anniversary. A new film, exhibit, and scholarly conference explored the ways in which "The West Wing" has become a notion associated with dramatic meetings of powerful political players that have changed American and world history. Television particularly has shone a hot light on the West Wing but, in fact, presidents made history in the historic White House for more than a century before executive power became firmly situated in those offices west of the structure George Washington built.

From 1800 to 1902, the roles of home and office were literally and figuratively linked at the White House. The president played host to official visitors in his second-floor office, or entertained them on the state floor: in the East Room, the State Dining Room, or one of the beautiful parlors.

No matter the room or the era, however, an encounter with the White House could be a grand political success or defeat: it could lead to enduring friendships between nations, and it could result in a symbolic confrontation that would resonate for years to come.

The White House Historical Association (WHHA), through its Web site **http: www.whitehousehistory.org**, offers a number of opportunities for students to learn about executive power, how the president personifies it, and how the White House always has served as a place for encounters with America's friends and foes.

For teachers and students, the site has a number of lessons built upon the study of primary documents and secondary sources. It provides background on key United States historical events and the president's role in them, as well as bibliographies and links that send students to further resources. Lessons are keyed to the National Standards for United States history.

Supplementary resources include a number of timelines (architecture, presidents, first ladies, African Americans, music), a major White House bibliography, and a selection of scholarly articles from WHHA's illustrated journal, *White House History.*

Visitors also can find Flash animated tours of the historical White House and its gardens and grounds, and exhibits on the West Wing, presidential inaugurations, and the U.S. Marine Band. Most tours and exhibits feature audio and/or video clips.

Secondary Sources

For this year's NHD theme, *Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History,* the Web site can be mined for background on the president's role in exploring the American west and outer space. To begin, students can go to "For the Classroom", click on "Students 4-8," and go to "Making History at the White House." Brief chronological sketches will provide an introduction to these topics that will place the theme in a larger context. Select "The White House and Western Expansion" and read about how Thomas Jefferson turned the White House into a natural history museum, exhibiting the public specimens sent back from Lewis and Clark's expedition; James K. Polk's push to enter war with Mexico for territories that would eventually become the states of Texas, New Mexico and

Franklin D. Roosevelt and Winston S. Churchill during their joint press conference at the White House, December 23, 1941, shortly after the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor and the United States entered World War II. (Franklin D. Roosevelt Library 59-124)

California; Theodore Roosevelt's efforts to save millions of acres as national parks; and Lady Bird Johnson's American beautification campaign. Select "The White House and Space Exploration" and read about presidents' involvement in the race to the moon and beyond: Eisenhower's reaction to Sputnik, Kennedy's vow to beat the Soviets, Nixon's phone call to Neil Armstrong after his historic landing, Reagan and the Challenger Disaster, and plans to study Mars.

Once they complete this overview, students might be encouraged to go further. Going to "Students 9-12," see the lesson entitled "The President as Visionary." There they will find more extensive background on President Thomas Jefferson and the Louisiana Territory, and President John F. Kennedy and the race to the moon. These illustrated articles are complete with footnotes and bibliography. There also are a number of activities teachers might choose from to engage their classrooms.

Primary Sources

To investigate White House "encounters and exchanges" through primary sources, students can go to "Primary Document Activities." Among the activities, two are relevant to the NHD theme, *Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History.*

Saving History: Dolley Madison, the White House, and the War of 1812

Everyone knows the story of First Lady Dolley Madison's dramatic rescue of the George Washington portrait as British troops moved in on the White House and subsequently burned the house during The War of 1812. This dramatic moment is the jumping-off point for a discussion of the document that is the source of this tale — a letter by Mrs. Madison to her sister, written during the final hours of occupation in August 1814. Recent research has suggested that the letter was written quite a bit after the event took place, however, and the whole subject leads to a discussion of what makes a document an *original.* Since historians have used the letter for decades to describe this event in American history, it is useful to see how it has been interpreted over the years, as well. Mrs. Madison wrote another letter to a different correspondent dated five months after the burning. Students can compare the letters and consider if a document's "value" is compromised when discrepancies, however minor, are discovered.

It is worth reviewing this time in American history, when a foreign force attacked the nation's capital. Perhaps the impact of 1814 might be better understood in light of recent events surrounding the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001. The melodrama of Dolley scrambling to save the iconic portrait and other valuables from the slow-moving foot soldiers, and the hindsight comfort that comes with the knowledge of eventual victory and reconstruction of the White House can make this a rather quaint story. But this encounter of a foreign invader with the President's House and the United States capital takes on a new cast today. One enrichment activity revolves around the discussion in 1814 of moving the President's House, and even the nation's capital, to a more secure location after the enemy so easily struck. Today's talk of "secure locations" for government officials is a familiar one to perceptive students of history.

Provoked by Pearl Harbor: The White House Meetings of FDR and Churchill, December, 1941

Although the White House made physical preparations for an "encounter" with the Japanese after Pearl Harbor, this lesson is really about the meeting of minds, when two world leaders met face-to-face for a series of critical strategy sessions at the advent of World War II. Britain's Prime Minister Winston Churchill visited President Franklin D. Roosevelt at the White House, arriving just two weeks after Pearl Harbor. The code-named "Arcadia" meetings led to the signing of the "Declaration by the United Nations" on New Year's Day, 1942. Twenty-six allied nations pledged their full resources to the defeat of the Axis powers and promised to make no separate peace. Some would later say that this signing was the birth of the United Nations.

This was not the first time these two leaders had met. In August 1941 they convened aboard a ship anchored off the coast of Newfoundland, where they set down the Atlantic Charter, guiding principles intended to govern the relationships among nations when peace came. Students are invited to read, compare, and discuss the Atlantic Charter and the Declaration by the United Nations. They are also asked to analyze FDR's annotations to the draft of the Declaration. There also are opportunities to read memoirs of key players or observers that give a sense of the atmosphere in the White House where, as Churchill put it, "intense activity reigned."

To further enliven these two primary document lessons, students could view the one-hour PBS film, **Echoes from the White House** (2001). This documentary features first hand accounts of life inside the White House, including these two historical episodes. See **http://www.pbs.org/wnet/whitehouse.**

Most major historical events in American history can be tied in some fashion to the home and office of the nation's chief executive. The White House as symbol of power and freedom further expands the possibility for examination of this year's NHD theme. The White House Historical Association invites learners to its Web site to begin their exploration.

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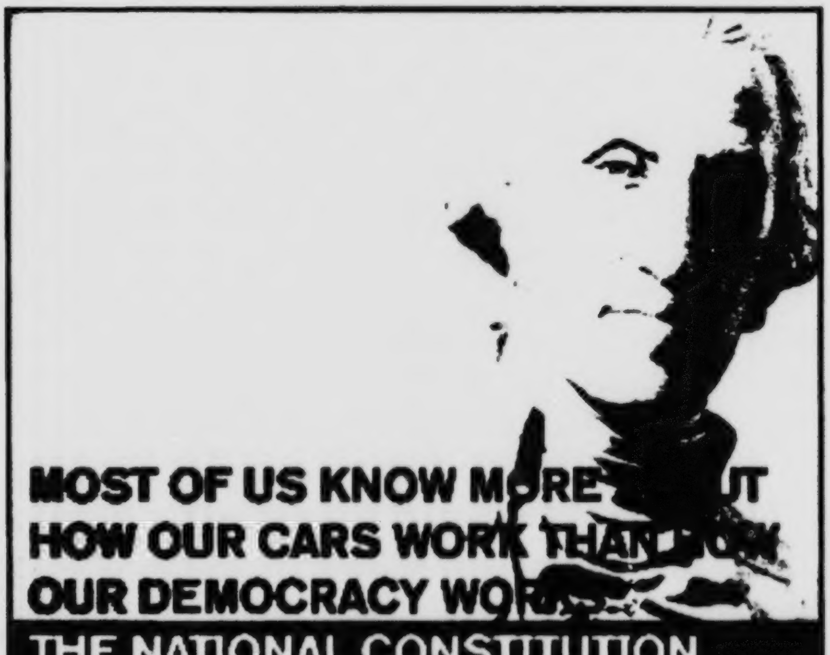
MOST OF US KNOW MORE ABOUT HOW OUR CARS WORK THAN HOW OUR DEMOCRACY WORKS.
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Exploring America's Past Through Music: Resources on the Irish-American Experience

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and
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National History Day

"Nobody, unless one has seen and also felt it, can conceive the inexplicable exhilaration of the heart which a dance communicates to the peasantry of Ireland."
– Francis O'Neill, *The Dance Music of Ireland.*

Music and the Irish Encounter with the United States

The state of being Irish in a foreign land has been a common theme in Ireland's modern history, both at home and abroad. Colonized, exploited, and politically oppressed by the British over the course of several hundred years, many Irish felt compelled to leave the country of their birth in search of better lives. Millions of these emigrants from Ireland headed for America, particularly during the starvation triggered by the potato blight of the 1840s. Ireland's combined economic, social, and political problems, in fact, triggered one of the largest migrations in history. An 1841 census counted about 8.2 million Irish in Ireland. By 1891, however, the island's population had shrunk to 4.7 million! While Ireland's population dwindled in part due to death by starvation and starvation-related illnesses, emigration also contributed to the decrease. According to American statistics, about 4.5 million Irish migrated to the United States between 1820 and 1924, spreading out into the countryside and swelling the populations of America's cities. By 1850, for example, Irish born made up 26 percent of the population of New York and 20 percent of the population of Chicago. Other destinations of Irish emigrants included Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. This spreading out of Irish people to other parts of the world is referred to as the Irish Diaspora.

When the Irish spread out to explore other parts of the world in search of opportunity, they took their culture with them. Hence the Irish Diaspora resulted in the spreading of aspects of Irish culture to different parts of the world. Lyrics of *The Rambling Irishman*, a traditional Irish song performed in several versions throughout the nineteenth century, captures in each the Irish experience of poverty at home figuring into the decision to migrate to the United States. Here is one version of the song:

I am a rambling Irishman
In Ulster I was born in
And many's the pleasant day I spent
Round the shores of sweet Lough Erne
For to be poor I could not endure
Like others of my station
To Americae I sailed away
And left this Irish nation

The Rambling Irishman captures the image of the Irish peasant who loves the homeland but feels forced to leave because of economic circumstances. "Americae" (pronounced "Ameri-kay") was a popular enough destination for these Irish that it became the subject of a song. The lyrics to this song are reflective of all three parts of this year's National History Day theme. Finding

Daniel Francis O'Neill (1848-1936) came to the United States from Ireland in 1868. He carefully collected and published thousands of Irish songs in America, in effect generating musical exchanges in Irish and American culture. (Irish Minstrels and Musicians)

themselves in worsening economic circumstances, the Irish feel they must explore new lands in search of better conditions. In their exploration, many encounter American culture. This encounter generates an exchange that is expressed in a song about the Irish experience of the United States. The music of Irish America, then, offers fertile ground for this year's History Day projects.

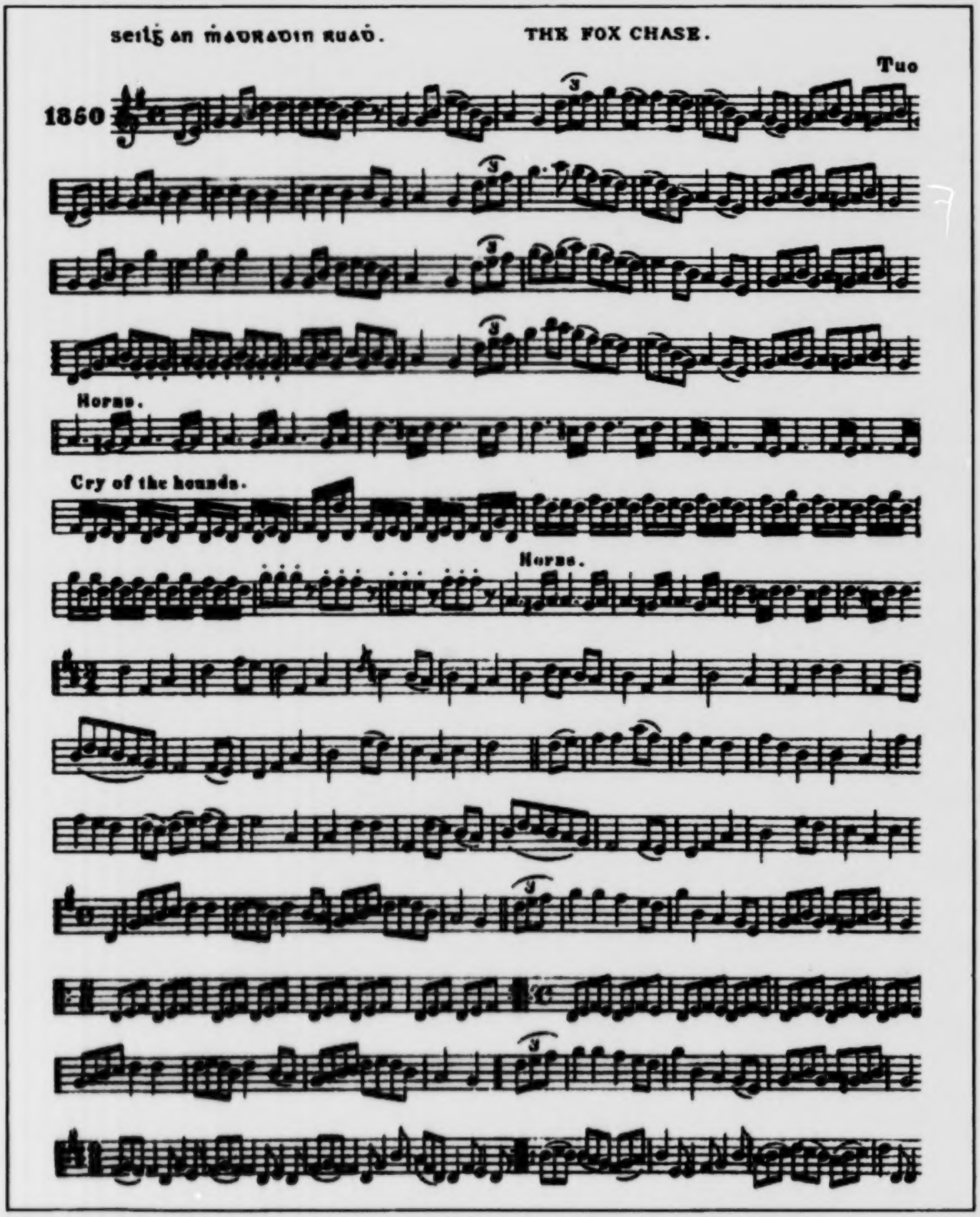
The Irish did not, by any means, experience immediate acceptance upon arrival in the United States. Scorned for their poverty, customs, and especially their Catholic religion, the encounters between Irish immigrants and native-born Americans were often hostile, and the Irish continued to experience economic hardship and discrimination until well after arrival in the United States. Nonetheless, as the Irish and the native-born population grew more accustomed to each other, each was transformed in many ways. The Irish found their way into American industry, city politics, police stations, and fire houses, often gaining considerable power within these institutions. American culture came to reflect this growing immigrant population. Irish music blended with other American musical forms to create brand new styles. In urban areas such as Five Points in New York City, for example, African and Irish culture combined to create new American musical and performance art forms such as tap dance and vaudeville.

Daniel Francis O'Neill and Musical Exchange

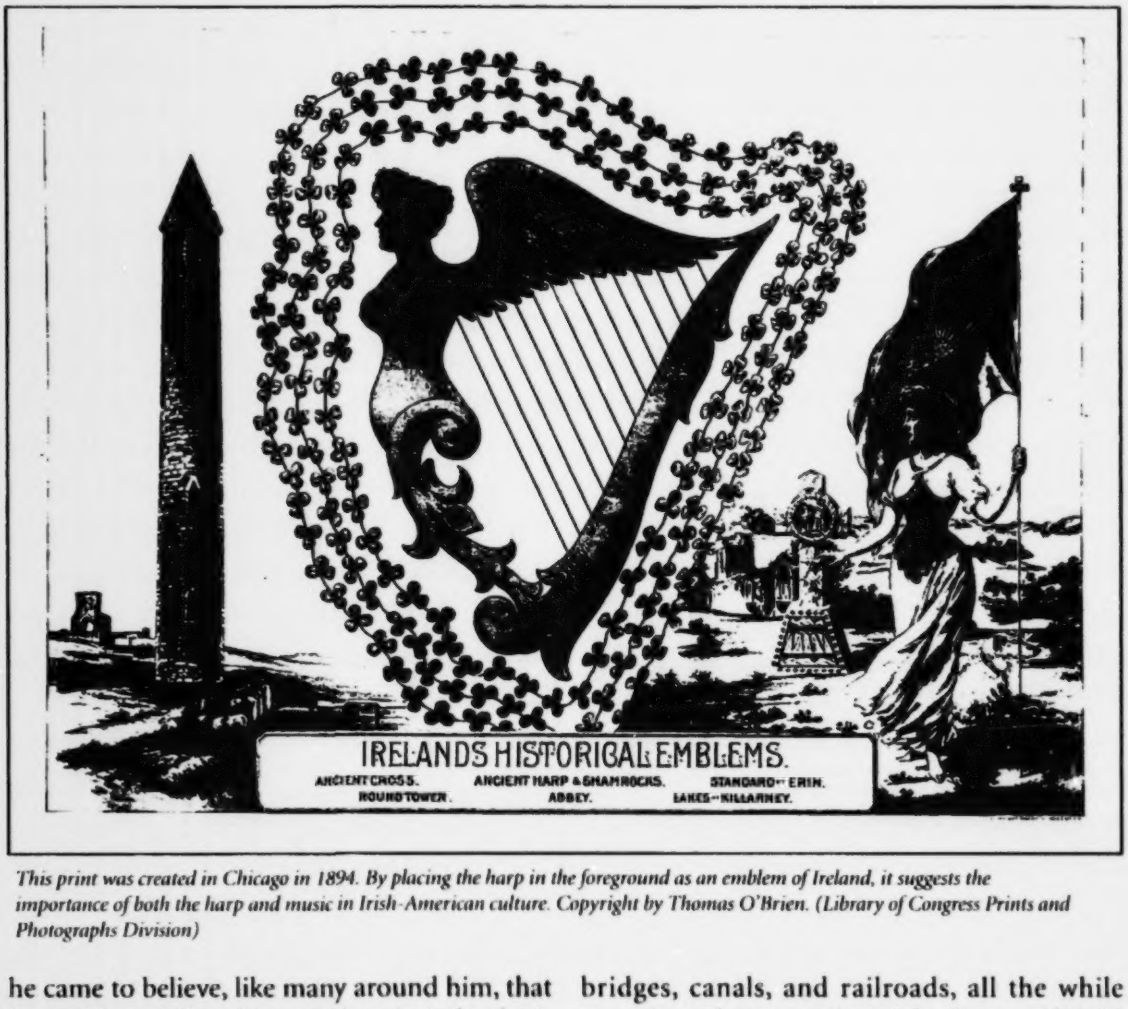
The life of Daniel Francis O'Neill is reflective of both developments mentioned above: the transformation of the Irish immigrant adapting to life in the United States, and the transformation of American culture with the inclusion of the Irish immigrant. O'Neill forged a professional place for himself in America as the Superintendent of Police in Chicago. As part of what he called his "fascinating hobby" of collecting and publishing Irish music, he also helped bring Irish culture to the United States. In his exploration and encounter with American culture, we might say, O'Neill became a promoter of exchange between the Irish and the Americans.

Francis O'Neill was born in 1848, one of the worst years of the great Irish potato famine, in the town of Tralibane in County Cork. The region of his birth possessed a rich musical tradition, and the O'Neill family regularly welcomed local and traveling musicians into their home. Young Francis was a clever student of music and became an accomplished flute player, later boasting that he never forgot any tune or song that he ever heard.

O'Neill grew up as millions of Irish were emigrating from Ireland to America. At age 16,


seilġ an ṁadradin ruaḋ.
THE FOX CHASE.
Tuo
1850
Horns.
Cry of the hounds.
Horns.

Here is a reproduction of The Fox Chase, *from Francis O'Neill's* Dance Music of Ireland, *first published in 1907. (Dance Music of Ireland)*


IRELANDS HISTORICAL EMBLEMS.
ANCIENT CROSS.
ROUND TOWER.
ANCIENT HARP & SHAMROCKS.
ABBEY.
STANDARD — ERIN.
LAKES — KILLARNEY.

This print was created in Chicago in 1894. By placing the harp in the foreground as an emblem of Ireland, it suggests the importance of both the harp and music in Irish-American culture. Copyright by Thomas O'Brien. (Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

he came to believe, like many around him, that he could not follow his ambitions in Ireland. He decided to take to the seas. In 1865 he boarded a ship and left his homeland, though he did not go directly to America. He worked for his passage on several ships, circumnavigated the globe, and was shipwrecked before ending up in San Francisco in 1868, three years after the Civil War had ended. Quite an exciting journey for a young man still in his teens!

America was changing rapidly during these years, and the thousands of Irish-Americans who had come to the United States and signed on to fight in the Union and Confederate armies were now traveling across the country building bridges, canals, and railroads, all the while carrying their music with them. O'Neill journeyed too, experiencing firsthand the spread of Irish traditional music as he worked as a rancher, shepherd, schoolteacher, and railroad laborer. He married a fellow Irish immigrant and moved to Chicago in 1870, the year of the Great Chicago Fire, and eventually joined the Chicago police force. Within a month he was shot by a burglar, but still managed to arrest the felon and bring him into the station. He carried the bullet, lodged near his spine, until his death. Such heroics as well as a genial manner allowed him to rise to the rank of Superintendent of Police of Chicago in 1901.

American music in general was undergoing transformation during this period, as illustrated by the rise of "Tin Pan Alley." Tin Pan Alley is the name given to a collection of songwriters and publishers based in Manhattan, New York that helped forge a popular sheet music industry between the 1880s and the 1920s. With time, however, Tin Pan Alley became a generic term for all publishers of popular sheet music in the United States, regardless of geographic location. Rather than focusing, as early publishing houses did, on publishing classical, dance, and religious music, Tin Pan Alley music publishers specialized in publishing popular songs that reflected the events and personalities of the day, much of it by first- and second-generation Irish-Americans in the field. These Tin Pan Alley songwriters produced a variety of songs that have shaped the way Americans understand the Irish. Chauncey Olcott, one of the most productive of the Tin Pan Alley writers wrote one of the most famous sentimental Irish ballads of all time: *When Irish Eyes are Smiling*. This song, as well as other Tin Pan Alley songs, marked a new stage in the Irish-American experience, one in which first- and second-generation Irish looked back nostalgically at the Ireland of the past in an industrializing and often overwhelming America.

As many Irish-Americans found themselves succeeding in the popular music industry, another trend critical of this new popular music arose. Francis O'Neill and other lovers of the more traditional music of Ireland began to worry that Irish-Americans were losing interest in the older music of the homeland, favoring the popular songs instead. O'Neill began to devote much of his private life to his passion for the traditional music of his native Ireland and began developing a network of musicians both in Chicago and Ireland committed to preserving this music. In 1901 he helped establish the Irish Music Club of Chicago and seized every opportunity to promote traditional Irish music. His efforts led to the compilation and publication of *The Music of Ireland* in 1903. This volume contained more than 1,800 pieces of Irish traditional music. This achievement ensured that Irish dance music was preserved and remained within the living tradition of Irish America. O'Neill went on to publish several other books, including *Dance Music of Ireland,* a book that assembled 1,001 songs and continues to be regarded as the most respected book on Irish music in America, Ireland, and around the world.

Irish musicians, often impoverished, used the cheapest instruments they had to perform their traditional music — their voices. Nonetheless, they did manage to secure other instruments upon occasion, usually from abroad. Among the most popular instruments on which Irish musicians performed were the following:

Bodhrán (pronounced bow`-rawn)

The bodhrán is a shallow, one-sided drum found in many cultures throughout the world. The bodhrán is usually covered with goatskin and looks like a large tambourine without the metal jingles. It is played with a small wooden stick or with the back of the hand and serves as an accompaniment to dance music.

Flute

Flutes of various forms have been played in Ireland for hundreds of years. The kind in use today — containing six holes and up to eight keys — became popular in Ireland in the nineteenth century. These flutes played in the 1800s were often wooden and much smoother in tone than the tin whistle (see below).

Tin Whistle

The simplest and cheapest of the traditional instruments used to make Irish music, the tin whistle is a metal tube, with six holes and a mouthpiece.

Uilleann Pipes (pronounced ill′-in)

The uilleann pipes are Irish bagpipes. The most obvious difference between them and the bagpipes of Scotland is that the uilleann pipes are not blown with the mouth; air is pumped into the bag by means of an elbow bellows. The piper must pump the bellows with his elbow while he or she plays the chanter with both hands and leans his wrist on the keys of the regulators.

Harp

There has been a harping tradition in Ireland for hundreds of years. Most Celtic harps are small, and can be played on the knee.

Fiddle

The fiddle is the foundation of most Irish music. Although they have different names, the fiddle and the violin are exactly the same instrument. The difference lies in the style of music they make, rather than the construction of the instrument itself.

According to fiddler folklore:

- A fiddle is sometimes referred to as the "nickname" of a violin.
- The difference between a violin and a fiddle is that a violin has a case.
- A violin has 'strings' and a fiddle has 'strangs'.
- It's a fiddle when you want to buy it and a violin when you want to sell it.

O'Neill continued to archive Irish traditional music as the new technologies of phonograph records and radio emerged. These devices created a desire for music of all types, and had profound effects on music-making. It was to the bands and musicians who played in the Irish-controlled bars and dance halls that the recording companies went in search of talent. These musicians were of course using O'Neill's books, and the recordings they made found their way back to Ireland and influenced future generations of traditional players.

A fiddle is the same as a violin, but the names differ with the music played on the instrument. Classical music is performed on the violin, while the fiddle is used to play folk music. Irish fiddlers still consider Francis O'Neill's books to be the "Bibles" of Irish traditional music. (Photo Courtesy Paul Hayward)

History Day Projects related to Irish and Irish-American Music

- Musical Exchanges: The Irish Diaspora and World Music
- African and Irish Musical Encounters: The American Stage
- Irish Americans and Tin Pan Alley
- Francis O'Neill and Irish-American Musical Exchange
- The Irish Immigrant and the American Southern Musical Tradition
- The Encounter with the British and Irish Music
- Exploring Irish Immigration through Music
- The Fiddle and Irish Musical Exchange
- George M. Cohan and the Broadway Musical

- Irish Musicians and Rock & Roll in the United States
- Musical Exchanges: The African-American Influence on Irish Music

Selected Sources for Projects on Irish and Irish-American Music

Books

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Web sites

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Internet companion to the six-hour PBS series.

http://www.itma.ie
Traditional Irish music archive. A comprehensive collection of Irish traditional music and related materials.

http://www.comhaltas.com
Comhaltas Ceoltoiri Eireann — Promoting the Music, Culture, and Arts of Ireland at home and abroad.

http://www.azirishmusic.com/festival.htm
Irish music festival directory.

http://www.aviso.net/dir/usa/irish/events
Another Irish music festival listing.

http://www.ceolas.org/ceolas.html
Ceolas-Large collection of online Celtic music and information.

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Patriots and Loyalists: A Revolutionary Encounter

By William Fetsko, Ph. D.
The Colonial Williamsburg Foundation

Introduction

In the middle of the eighteenth century, a series of events occurred that transformed the nature of the encounters and exchanges that took place between Great Britain and its American colonies. Chief among these was the Seven Years' War, one episode among many transpiring between Great Britain and France for dominance in the Atlantic. After a series of decisive British victories, this war ended in 1763 with the Treaty of Paris. France, according to the treaty, was to give up its North American claims, leaving Britain the supreme power on the American continent.

Maintaining power on the continent was expensive, however, and protecting the colonies had plunged Great Britain deeply into debt. Faced with such debts, the British were determined to enlist the colonists in helping to pay the war's costs. The war with France, however, had forced the British to loosen control over the colonies in order to gain their cooperation. So when the British attempted to again tighten control over the colonies, many expressed resentment, believing that Britain should be exercising less control over them, not more, as they matured. Many colonists were coming to believe they were ready for self-government.

The British and the Americans disagreed more and more on their respective roles within the empire after the Seven Years' War. The British viewed the colonies as inferior and dependent children. The Americans saw Great Britain as an overprotective parent. These differing views about roles in the empire altered the nature of the encounters and exchanges that took place between the colonists and the mother country.

One change in policy toward the colonists was especially important: The British demonstrated a new willingness to use Parliamentary authority and military power to achieve their goals, particularly as related to the issues of trade and taxation. With a growing population, expanding economy, and freedom from the French threat, the colonies increasingly resented what they saw as British interference in their affairs.

Background

Although not always enforced, British trade regulations were a fact of life in the American colonies. Because of Britain's expectation that the colonies would help pay its war debt, Britain began taking measures to revise old taxes into new ones that were more profitable to the British treasury. One such act, the Sugar Act of 1764, which sought to revise an older tax on molasses, met with limited local resistance in the colonies.

The Sugar Act did not generate enough money to ease Britain's financial problems. As a result, the Stamp Act was passed in 1765. The Stamp Act authorized the first direct tax laid on all the colonies to raise money, and it sparked riots and mob violence. Opposition to the stamp tax spread swiftly from colony to colony, accompanied by the rallying cry: "No taxation without representation!" This cry expressed a belief among many that the colonists were not represented in Parliament, had no say in the passage of the act, and therefore had the right to reject it. Responding to pressure from British merchants, Parliament repealed the Stamp Act in 1766 but reaffirmed its right to tax the colonies.

With the money problem still unsolved, Parliament passed the Townshend Acts in 1767. The Townshend Acts placed taxes on colonial imports — taxes also known as "duties" — on items such as glass, lead, paints, paper, and tea, which could only be legally imported from Great Britain. The colonists at once adopted nonimportation agreements to prevent the British from collecting the taxes. Parliament withdrew all of these duties in 1770, except that on tea.

After years of such tense encounters about the British right to tax the colonies, no progress toward compromise had been made. Each remained convinced of its own position and became more distrustful of the other. The colonists had twice defeated British tax schemes and were confident that they could do so again. The duty on tea, however, signaled Britain's intention to uphold its right to tax. Faced with continuing resistance, Parliament became more determined to use force, if necessary, to assert its authority.

As events surrounding the taxation issue suggest, the nature of encounter and exchange between Britain and the colonies was changing in the 1760s. Britain was more and more ready to use physical force to enforce its position, and the Americans were more ready to use force to resist British aims. When the British began sending soldiers to New York and Boston in the late 1760s, the colonists suspected that these troops might be used against them, and they began preparations to defend themselves. Tensions were high in March 1770, when British soldiers, sent to support local British officials, fired into an angry Boston crowd and killed five people. This incident would be later known as the Boston Massacre.

Such heated and often violent encounters became more common, spreading beyond the issue of taxation to include all British control over colonial affairs. By 1773, the conflict centered on tea, an ordinary beverage that became a symbol of both oppression and resistance.

By 1770, tea was the only item that still carried an import tax. In 1773, Parliament passed the Tea Act, lowering the tea tax to encourage its acceptance and giving the British East India Company a monopoly on its sale. Outraged colonists saw this as one more attempt to rob them of their liberty, and they responded by preventing the unloading of tea cargoes and finally by dumping tea into the Boston harbor. An angered Parliament passed the "Intolerable Acts" (Coercive Acts) to punish the Americans.

The events that followed the passage of the Tea Act demonstrated a key transformation in the nature of encounter and exchange between Britain and the colonies. There was a feeling of desperation in the colonies, as none of the traditional ways of obtaining justice seemed to work. New forms of exchange emerged: believing Parliament's response to the Boston Tea Party excessively harsh, all 13 colonies grew more unified. Concluding that a defense of their rights was in order, all the colonies sent delegates to the First Continental Congress in September 1774 to forge a common plan of action. Colonial political leaders were kept informed of news through an effective system of correspondence as they worked to develop new governing institutions. Widely read political pamphlets motivated Americans to take a stand and prepare to defend themselves. A full-scale military encounter appeared inevitable.

By the spring of 1775, Massachusetts, the seat of much of the earliest opposition to the new taxes, was a powder keg. Parliament declared the Massachusetts colony to be in rebellion, and King George III and his ministers were urging Gen. Thomas Gage, the British military governor there, to take action, even if it meant war. On April 19, Gage "lit the fuse" by ordering 800

British troops from Boston to Concord to seize military supplies stored there.

When the British reached Lexington, they dispersed a small band of minutemen, leaving eight dead. The first shots of the Revolution had been fired. Marching on to Concord, the troops met stronger resistance and turned back toward Boston. What began as an orderly withdrawal, however, soon turned into a nightmare, as the Americans fired on them from behind trees, fences, and buildings. By days' end, all of Massachusetts was in open rebellion, and the British army found itself under siege.

By the time the Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia in May, 1775, the fighting of the Revolutionary War had begun. The Congress voted to organize an American army under George Washington. Even as they authorized military resistance, the delegates made one last attempt at reconciliation, sending the Olive Branch Petition to the King in June. George III, however, refused to read it and declared the Americans rebels. By early 1776, popular opinion in the colonies in favor of independence was growing, partly influenced by Thomas Paine's pamphlet *Common Sense*.

With the possibility of war becoming more and more of a reality, the colonists had to decide where their loyalties laid. Would they be "Tories" or "Loyalists" who supported Great Britain, or "Patriots" who favored independence for the colonies?

Student Objectives

- Discuss the events leading up to the American Revolutionary War
- Read and interpret primary source materials
- List reasons for remaining loyal to Great Britain
- State reasons for seeking independence from Great Britain
- Participate in a discussion regarding the pros and cons of striving for independence from Great Britain
- Take a position relative to the issue of independence from Great Britain and present arguments supporting each point of view.

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson fits into the curriculum by having students:

- Identify central questions in a historical narrative and the purpose, perspective, or point of view from which it has been constructed (Historical Thinking Standard 2B)
- Utilize and draw upon visual data to clarify, illustrate, or elaborate upon information presented in the historical narrative (Historical Thinking Standards 2F and 2G)
- Compare and contrast differing sets of ideas and values by identifying likenesses and differences (Historical Thinking Standard 3B)
- Consider multiple perspectives of various peoples in the past by demonstrating their different motives, beliefs, interests, hopes, and fears (Historical Thinking Standard 3D)
- Interrogate historical data by uncovering the social, political, and economic context in which it was created (Historical Thinking Standard 4C)

- Evaluate alternative courses of action in terms of ethical considerations, the interests of those affected by the decision, and the long- and short-term consequences of each (Historical Thinking Standard 5D)
- Formulate a position or course of action on an issue by identifying the nature of the problem, analyzing the underlying factors contributing to the problem, and choosing a plausible solution from a choice of carefully evaluated options (Historical Thinking Standard 5E)
- This lesson fits into U. S. History Standards Era 3, Revolution and the New Nation, 1754-1820s. Standard 1, the causes of the American Revolution, the ideas and interests involved in forging the revolutionary movement, and the reasons for the American victory

Activity 1

On an overhead or handout, show students the illustration of *The Bloody Massacre* by Paul Revere. With the class, analyze the cartoon and discuss the event. Use this opportunity to also provide additional historical information regarding the events leading up to this engagement.

Explain to the class that individuals were rapidly being placed in a position where they were going to have to decide whether to remain loyal to Great Britain or side with the colonists to seek their independence.

Inform the students that for some, the issue was fairly straightforward. At this point, give the class a copy of Patrick Henry's *Give Me Liberty or Give Me Death* speech. Take time to go over this with the students, explaining to them that it was rhetoric such as this that tended to inflame the debate. (It should be made clear to the class that since no one took any notes as Henry was speaking, this is a recollection of what he said by individuals in attendance. Consequently, they may find some minor discrepancies if they come across other versions of this speech).

At this point, indicate to the students that they are going to engage in an exercise that will require them to identify the arguments set forth by the colonists, both for and against the quest for independence from Great Britain.

Activity 2

Organize the class into groups of four to five students. Give each group a copy of *The Declaration of Independence and The True Interest of America Impartially Stated,* and give each student the graphic organizer *Arguments For and Against Declaring Independence From Great Britain.*

Indicate to the students that they are to read through each of the documents and, on the graphic organizer, in the appropriate column, list the arguments both for and against seeking independence from Great Britain. (Provide help as needed because some of the language may be difficult for some students.)

When the task has been completed, have the students share their findings. As the arguments, both pro and con, are being presented, have the students check their lists. If there are any items that they did not include on their sheet, they should add them to the proper column.

At this point, make arrangements to take the class to the library to engage in additional research relative to this issue. (It is probably a good idea to have the librarian set aside resources that pertain to this topic prior to the class visit in order to conserve time. A list of Web sites dealing with this issue can be made available for the class as well.)

Once again the students are to identify the colonists' arguments for and against seeking independence from Great Britain. Any new points should be added to the list on their graphic organizers.

Upon returning to the classroom, have the students share any additional arguments they found as a result of their library research. Any new ones should be added to each student's list.

With the class, discuss and clarify the reasons for and against seeking independence from Great Britain. Impress upon the students what a difficult decision this was for the colonists. They had emigrated from Great Britain, many had family members still living there, and the livelihood of others was dependent upon continued trade with the mother country. Ask them to consider which side they would have taken.

At this time, have the students share their thoughts on the relative merits of remaining a colony of Great Britain or breaking away and becoming an independent nation. Indicate to the class that in the eighteenth century, all of the colonists had to make a decision as to where their loyalties laid.

Enrichment/Extension

- Have students write a letter to an acquaintance in Great Britain indicating whether they are for or against independence. They are to make sure that they clearly state their reasons for their choice.
- Working together, a group of students can develop a PowerPoint presentation in which they present a case for or against independence from Great Britain.
- Students can write an editorial for a colonial newspaper stating their support for or opposition to the movement for independence from Great Britain.
- Students can draw a comic strip in which they present the position for or against the colonial independence movement.

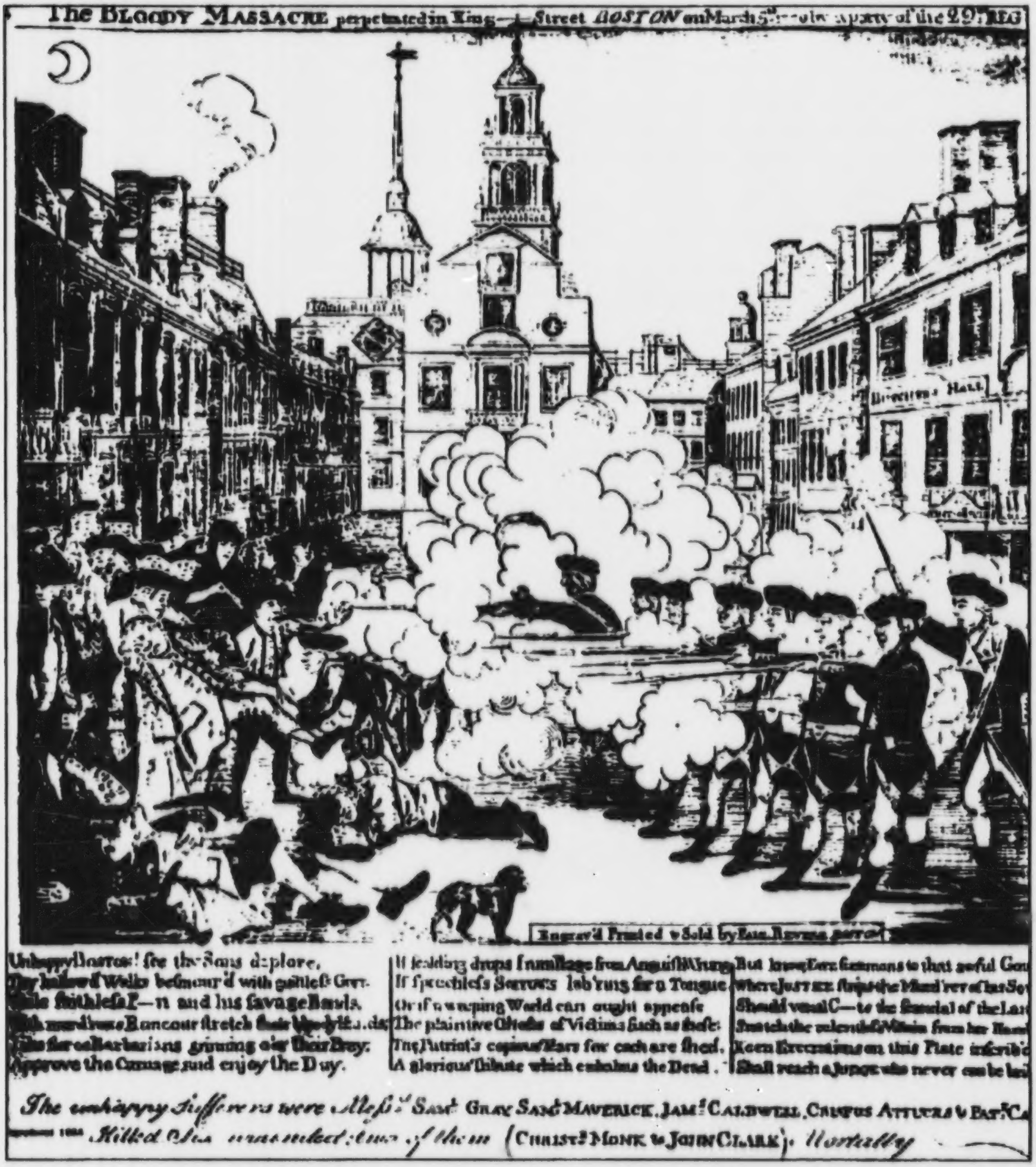
Ideas for History Day Projects

- After exploring the ideas of key Loyalists and Patriots in the debate over whether to seek independence, students might want to stage a performance in which Loyalists and Patriots exchange ideas about American independence.
- Women, like men, played key roles in the events leading up to the American Revolution, though often in ways different from men. Research key Loyalist and Patriot women and write a paper on their contributions to the American Revolution.
- Pamphlets, such as Thomas Paine's *Common Sense*, played a crucial role in spreading revolutionary ideas before and during the revolution. Create a project describing pamphlets, the exchange of ideas and information, and the coming of the American Revolution.
- Create an exhibit on cartoons, their politics, and the exchange of ideas during the American Revolution.

Primary Materials Featured

1. *The Bloody Massacre* print by Paul Revere
2. *Give Me Liberty or Give Me Death* speech by Patrick Henry – March 23, 1775
3. *The Declaration of Independence* – July 4, 1776
4. *The True Interest of America Impartially Stated* – by Charles Inglis, 1776

1. *The Bloody Massacre* by Paul Revere


The BLOODY MASSACRE perpetrated in King Street BOSTON on March 5th
Engrav'd Printed & Sold by Paul Revere BOSTON
Unhappy Boston! see thy Sons deplore,
Thy hallow'd Walks besmear'd with guiltless Gore.
While faithless P—n and his savage Bands,
Approve the Carnage and enjoy the Day.
If scalding drops from Rage from Anguish Wrung
If speechless Sorrows lab'ring for a Tongue
Or if a weeping World can ought appease
The plaintive Ghosts of Victims such as these:
The Patriot's copious Tears for each are shed,
A glorious Tribute which embalms the Dead .
Should venal C—ts the scandal of the Land
Keen Execrations on this Plate inscrib'd
Shall reach a Judge who never can be
The unhappy Sufferers were Mess.rs Sam.l Gray Sam.l Maverick, Jam.s Caldwell, Crispus Attucks & Pat.k Ca
Killed Six wounded; two of them (Christ.r Monk & John Clark) Mortally

1. *Paul Revere created the engraving from which this print was made in 1770. It was intended to inflame public opinion against the British by depicting what became known as the Boston Massacre.*

2. Give Me Liberty of Give Me Death speech by Patrick Henry, 1775 (excerpt)

Patrick Henry (1736-1799) was a lawyer, a patriot, and an outspoken opponent of the Stamp Act of 1765. He served as, among other things, a delegate to the Continental Congress and as Governor of Virginia.

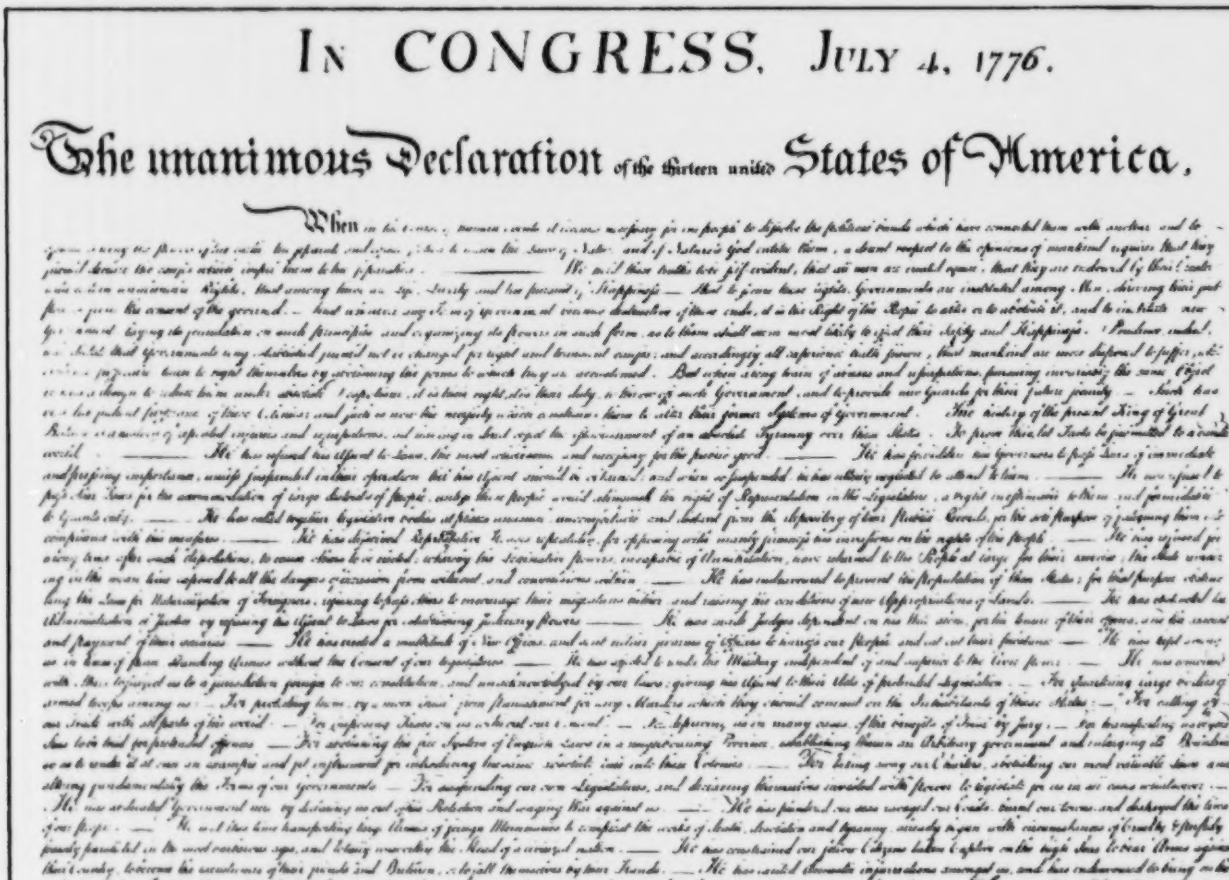
On March 23, 1775 Patrick Henry urged his fellow Virginians to take up arms in their own defense in a speech delivered at St. John's Church in Richmond.

Here is an excerpt from that speech:

I have but one lamp by which my feet are guided, and that is the lamp of experience. I know of no way of judging of the future but by the past. And judging by the past, I wish to know what there has been in the conduct of the British ministry for the last ten years to justify those hopes with which gentlemen have been pleased to solace themselves and the House. Is it that insidious smile with which our petition has been lately received? Trust it not, sir; it will prove a snare to your feet. Suffer not yourselves to be betrayed with a kiss. Ask yourselves how this gracious reception of our petition comports with those warlike preparations which cover our waters and darken our land. Are fleets and armies necessary to a work of love and reconciliation? Have we shown ourselves so unwilling to be reconciled that force must be called in to win back our love? Let us not deceive ourselves, sir. These are the implements of war and subjugation; the last arguments to which kings resort. I ask gentlemen, sir, what means this martial array, if its purpose be not to force us to submission? Can gentlemen assign any other possible motive for it? Has Great Britain any enemy, in this quarter of the world, to call for all this accumulation of navies and armies? No, sir, she has none. They are meant for us: they can be meant for no other. They are sent over to bind and rivet upon us those chains which the British ministry have been so long forging. And what have we to oppose to them? Shall we try argument? Sir, we have been trying that for the last ten years. Have we anything new to offer upon the subject? Nothing. We have held the subject up in every light of which it is capable; but it has been all in vain. Shall we resort to entreaty and humble supplication? What terms shall we find which have not been already exhausted? Let us not, I beseech you, sir, deceive ourselves. Sir, we have done everything that could be done to avert the storm which is now coming on. We have petitioned; we have remonstrated; we have supplicated; we have prostrated ourselves before the throne, and have implored its interposition to arrest the tyrannical hands of the ministry and Parliament. Our petitions have been slighted; our remonstrances have produced additional violence and insult; our supplications have been disregarded; and we have been spurned, with contempt, from the foot of the throne! In vain, after these things, may we indulge the fond hope of peace and reconciliation. There is no longer any room for hope. If we wish to be free — if we mean to preserve inviolate those inestimable privileges for which we have been so long contending — if we mean not basely to abandon the noble struggle in which we have been so long engaged, and which we have pledged ourselves never to abandon until the glorious object of our contest shall be obtained — we must fight! I repeat it, sir, we must fight! An appeal to arms and to the God of hosts is all that is left us!

They tell us, sir, that we are weak; unable to cope with so formidable an adversary. But when shall we be stronger? Will it be the next week, or the next year? Will it be when we are totally disarmed, and when a British guard shall be stationed in every house? Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction? Shall we acquire the means of effectual resistance by lying supinely on our backs and hugging the delusive phantom of hope, until our enemies shall have bound us hand and foot? Sir, we are not weak if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power. The millions of people, armed in the holy cause of liberty, and in such a country as that which we possess, are invincible by any force which our enemy can send against us. Besides, sir, we shall not fight our battles alone. There is a just God who presides over the destinies of nations, and who will raise up friends to fight our battles for us. The battle, sir, is not to the strong alone; it is to the vigilant, the active, the brave. Besides, sir, we have no election. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest. There is no retreat but in submission and slavery! Our chains are forged! Their clanking may be heard on the plains of Boston! The war is inevitable — and let it come! I repeat it, sir, let it come.

It is in vain, sir, to extenuate the matter. Gentlemen may cry, Peace, Peace — but there is no peace. The war is actually begun! The next gale that sweeps from the north will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms! Our brethren are already in the field! Why stand we here idle? What is it that gentlemen wish? What would they have? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!



IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776.

The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America,

3. *Declaration of Independence, 1776. Facsimile and transcript can be found at www.ourdocuments.gov.*

3. Declaration of Independence 1776

IN CONGRESS, July 4, 1776.

The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America,

When in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed,—That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shewn, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good. He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them. He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only. He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures. He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people. He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the Legislative powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise; the State remaining in the mean time exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within. He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither, and raising the conditions of new Appropriations of Lands. He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary powers. He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries. He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to arass our people, and eat out their substance. He has kept among us, in times of peace, Standing Armies without the Consent of our legislatures. He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil power. He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation: For Quartering large bodies of armed troops among us: For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States: For cutting off our Trade with all parts of the world: For imposing Taxes on us without our Consent: For depriving us in many cases, of the benefits of Trial by Jury: For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offencesFor abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these Colonies: For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments: For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever. He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us. He has plundered our seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people. He is at this time transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to compleat the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty & perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation. He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands. He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these Oppressions We have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have We been wanting in attentions to our Brittish brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which, would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the united States of America, in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our sacred Honor.

The 56 signatures on the Declaration appear in the positions indicated:

Column 1

Georgia:

Button Gwinnett
Lyman Hall
George Walton

Column 2

North Carolina:

William Hooper
Joseph Hewes
John Penn

South Carolina:

Edward Rutledge
Thomas Heyward, Jr.
Thomas Lynch, Jr.
Arthur Middleton

Column 3

Massachusetts:

John Hancock

Maryland:

Samuel Chase
William Paca
Thomas Stone
Charles Carroll of Carrollton

Virginia:

George Wythe
Richard Henry Lee
Thomas Jefferson
Benjamin Harrison
Thomas Nelson, Jr.
Francis Lightfoot Lee
Carter Braxton

Column 4

Pennsylvania:

Robert Morris
Benjamin Rush
Benjamin Franklin
John Morton
George Clymer
James Smith
George Taylor
James Wilson
George Ross

Delaware:

Caesar Rodney
George Read
Thomas McKean

Column 5

New York:

William Floyd
Philip Livingston
Francis Lewis
Lewis Morris

New Jersey:

Richard Stockton
John Witherspoon
Francis Hopkinson
John Hart
Abraham Clark

Column 6

New Hampshire:

Josiah Bartlett
William Whipple

Massachusetts:

Samuel Adams
John Adams
Robert Treat Paine
Elbridge Gerry

Rhode Island:

Stephen Hopkins
William Ellery

Connecticut:

Roger Sherman
Samuel Huntington
William Williams
Oliver Wolcott

New Hampshire:

Matthew Thornton

4. The True Interest of America Impartially Stated by Charles Inglis, 1776

Charles Inglis, (1734–1816) was an Anglican clergyman that emigrated to America from Britain in 1755. While assistant rector (1765–77) of Trinity Church, New York City, he promoted Britain's position in the struggle with the colonies. His *True Interest of America Impartially Stated* (1776) and other writings were strongly Loyalist. Here is an excerpt of *The True Interest of America Impartially Stated.*

> Note I think it no difficult matter to point out many advantages which will certainly attend our reconciliation and connection with Great-Britain, on a firm, constitutional plan. I shall select a few of these; and that their importance may be more clearly discerned, I shall afterwards point out some of the evils which inevitably must attend our separating from Britain, and declaring for independency. On each article I shall study brevity. 1. By a reconciliation with Britain, a period would be put to the present calamitous war, by which so many lives have been lost, and so many more must be lost, if it continues. This alone is an advantage devoutly to he wished for. This author says — "The blood of the slain, the weeping voice of nature cries, Tis time to part. " I think they cry just the reverse. The blood of the slain, the weeping voice of nature cries — It is time to be reconciled; it is time to lay aside those animosities which have pushed on Britons to shed the blood of Britons; it is high time that those who are connected by the endearing ties of religion, kindred and country, should resume their former friendship, and be united in the bond of mutual affection, as their interests are inseparably united.
>
> 2. By a Reconciliation with Great-Britain, Peace — that fairest offspring and gift of Heaven — will be restored. In one respect Peace is like health; we do not sufficiently know its value but by its absence. What uneasiness and anxiety, what evils, has this short interruption of peace with the parent-state, brought on the whole British empire! Let every man only consult his feelings — I except my antagonist — and it will require no great force of rhetoric to convince him, that a removal of those evils, and a restoration of peace, would be a singular advantage and blessing.
>
> 3. Agriculture, commerce, and industry would resume their wonted vigor. At present, they languish and droop, both here and in Britain; and must continue to do so, while this unhappy contest remains unsettled.
>
> 4. By a connection with Great-Britain, our trade would still have the protection of the greatest naval power in the world. England has the advantage, in this respect, of every other state, whether of ancient or modern times. Her insular situation, her nurseries for seamen, the superiority of those seamen above others-these circumstances to mention no other, combine to make her the first maritime power in the universe — such exactly is the power whose protection we want for our commerce. To suppose, with our author, that we should have no war, were we to revolt from England, is too absurd to deserve a confutation. I could just as soon set about refuting the reveries of some brain-sick enthusiast. Past experience shews that Britain is able to defend our commerce, and our coasts; and we have no reason to doubt of her being able to do so for the future.
>
> 5. The protection of our trade, while connected with Britain, will not cost a fiftieth part of what it must cost, were we ourselves to raise a naval force sufficient for this purpose.
>
> 6. Whilst connected with Great-Britain, we have a bounty on almost every article of exportation; and we may be better supplied with goods by her, than we could elsewhere. What our author says is true; "that our imported goods must be paid for, buy them where we will"; but we may buy them dearer, and of worse quality, in one place than another. The manufactures of Great-Britain confessedly surpass any in the world — particularly those in every kind of metal, which we want most; and no country can afford linens and woollens, of equal quality cheaper.
>
> 7. When a Reconciliation is effected, and things return into the old channel, a few years of peace will restore everything to its pristine state. Emigrants will flow in as usual from the different parts of Europe. Population will advance with the same rapid progress as formerly, and our lands will rise in value. These advantages are not imaginary but real. They are such as we have already experienced; and such as we may derive from a connection with Great Britain for ages to come. Each of these might easily be enlarged on, and others added to them; but I only mean to suggest a few hints to the reader.

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Hibbert, Christopher. *Redcoats and Rebels.* New York: Norton,1990.

Subtitled *The American Revolution through British Eyes*, this is a valuable source for Loyalist and British descriptions of the Revolution's earliest battles in New England, like the Boston Massacre and Lexington and Concord.

Raphael, Ray. *A People's History of the American Revolution.* New York: New Press, 2001.

An accessible overview of the Revolution from the perspective of social history, emphasizing the roles of groups (such as women and African-Americans) often left out of standard texts.

Hakim, Joy. *From Colonies to Country.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1993.

Best suited for middle-school students, this text covers American History from the French and Indian War to the Constitutional Convention. Includes chapters on women and children during the revolution and ideas leading to the framing of the Constitution.

Bullock, Steven. *The American Revolution: A History in Documents.* New York: Oxford University Press, 2002.

The American Revolution illustrates through a collection of primary sources how, in the space of a few hundred years, contented colonists would form an independent country that could challenge the world power of the time — and win.

Web sites

http://andromeda. rutgers. edu/-jlynch/18th/
Contains more than 2,000 Internet sites on 18th century culture.

www. history. org
The Colonial Williamsburg Web site.

http://odur. let. rug. nl/-usa/
A Dutch site *From Revolution to Reconstruction*, it transforms traditional history textbooks into a hypertext form which links narrative history with supporting primary documents.

* * *

Graphic Organizer

ARGUMENTS FOR AND AGAINST DECLARING INDEPENDENCE FROM GREAT BRITAIN

FOR	AGAINST

Lewis and Clark: Across the Cultural Landscape

by Tim Grove

Educator
Lewis & Clark: The National Bicentennial Exhibition
Missouri Historical Society

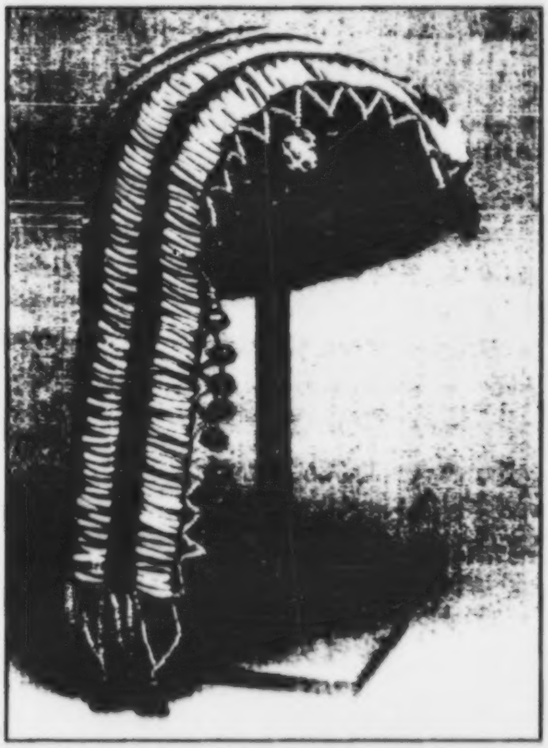
Introduction

If asked to name America's most famous explorers, many Americans would probably say Meriwether Lewis and William Clark. As the bicentennial of their expedition west in 1804-06 approaches, the American public will be bombarded with Lewis and Clark information. The topic enthralls audiences across the demographic spectrum and will no doubt also be a popular subject for National History Day projects this coming year as students conduct research on the theme *Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History.* While at times the Lewis and Clark story may seem too familiar and overdone, it is a subject with tremendous depth and scope. With a little direction, students who choose this topic can uncover a complex story that gets at the heart of exploration. While the story is most often told in the context of the natural landscape, a look at the expedition's encounter with the cultural landscape can reveal the rewards and challenges of crossing cultural boundaries.

Many people are drawn to the Lewis and Clark expedition story because of the sheer drama and sense of adventure it evokes: men against nature, facing the unknown in a vast wilderness. The reality, of course, is that the land was inhabited by many Native Americans — people who lived in complex, well-established societies that were interconnected through vast trade networks. President Thomas Jefferson, the force behind the expedition, placed great importance on Lewis and Clark's encounters with the Indians. In his instructions to Lewis, Jefferson put Indian relations just after geographical exploration in order of importance. Lewis and Clark were an official American delegation charged with opening diplomatic relations with the tribes they encountered. Jefferson also instructed them to gather a range of information about these cultures and to "treat them in the most friendly & conciliatory manner..." Hence, while from one angle, the Lewis and Clark expedition presents us with an amazing geographical adventure story, it also offers us a chance to explore a historic event from a cultural perspective.

Background

Anyone who has come face-to-face with a culture different from their own knows that cultural encounter and exploration entails many challenges. Both Lewis and Clark and the tribes they encountered were constantly evaluating each other. To the native tribes, Lewis and Clark and members of the expedition (known as the Corps of Discovery) were strangers in the neighborhood. A great many tribal councils debated what to do with these strangers. Fortunately for Lewis and Clark, most of the Indians chose to treat the expedition members with generosity and kindness. Yet the challenges of navigating the cultural landscape resulted in two Indian fatalities at the hands of Lewis and one of his men. Camped with a small group of Blackfeet on the Two Medicine River on the return trip, Lewis and three members of the Corps ended up in a fight with the Indians. The reason: Capturing an enemy's weapon or horse was an honorable act to the Indians, but a lawless act to Lewis and his men.

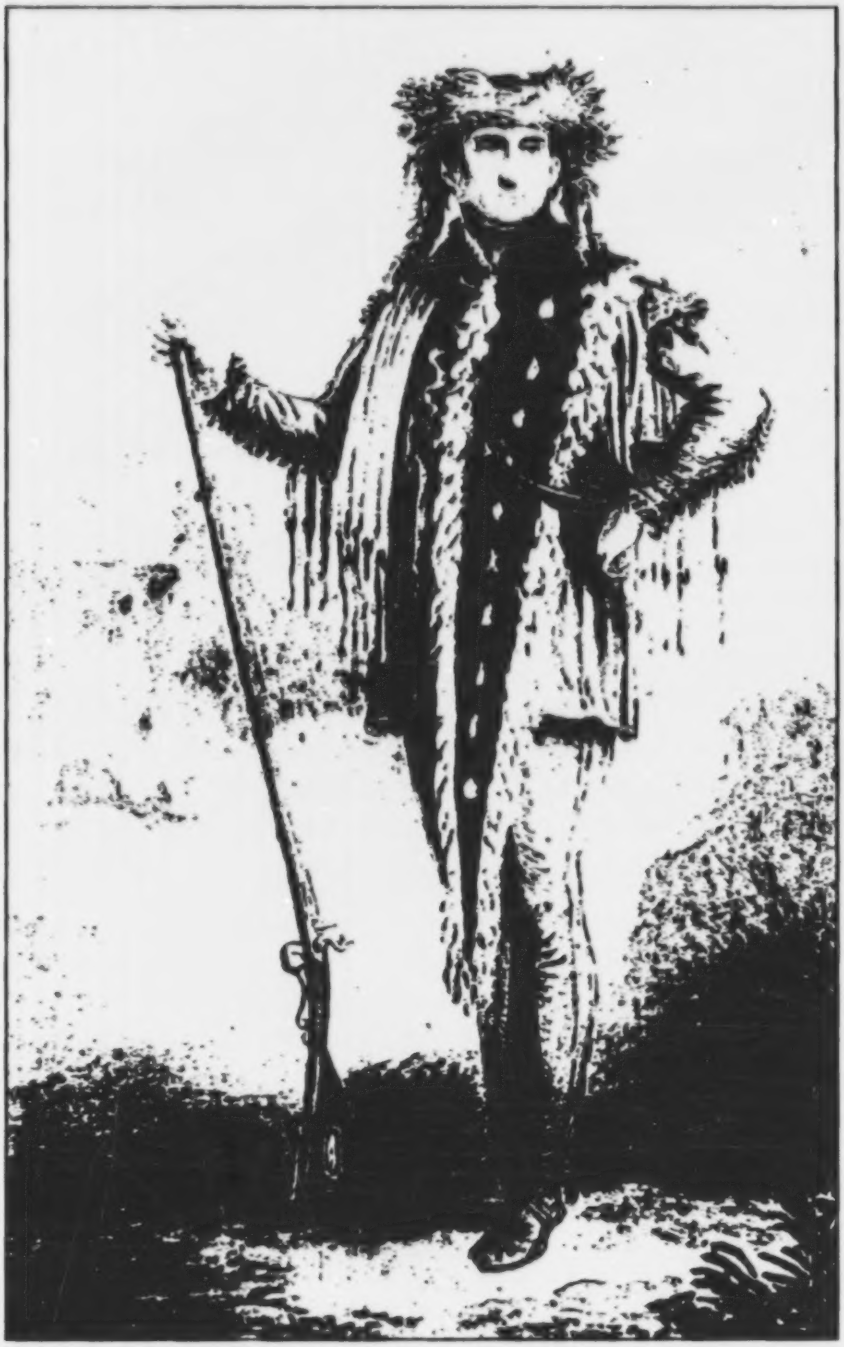


A Klickitat Dentalium Shell Wedding Veil, ca 1890. (Maryhill Museum of Art, Goldendale, WA.)

As with any episode in history, the Lewis and Clark venture can be understood from various points of view. We are fortunate to have a rich documentary record of the expedition. Detailed journal entries offer us many careful observations. Lewis and Clark kept copious notes of their trip, yet they saw the West through a very specific lens. They had specific definitions related to wealth and property, a woman's role, the political landscape, an African-American's role, and the nation's destiny. The people they encountered often had very different definitions with respect to these things. Lewis and Clark's views were often clouded by the baggage of expectations they brought with them. They wore cultural blinders, just as we all do, and cultural blinders can hinder discovery and exploration.

An example of how Lewis and Clark saw Indians through their own culture can be seen in their description of the Indians they encountered as "poor." These Indians were far from living what Lewis and Clark saw as the "good life." In Virginia, wealth was indicated by ownership of land and slaves. For them, a wealthy society possessed mass manufactured goods and prosperous farms. Yet wealth can be defined in different ways. Lewis and Clark passed through the center of two vast trade networks at the Mandan villages and at the Dalles on the Columbia River. They would have seen abundant supplies of food and products made in far-off places. At the Dalles, Clark commented on the huge stacks of dried salmon weighing up to 10,000 pounds. This area was a major emporium of trade, where items as diverse as songs and blankets were bought and sold. Some of the things Lewis and Clark might have seen include objects such as sheep horn ladles, mountain goat wool blankets, wooden sculptures, carved canoes, woven bags, effigy bowls, metal daggers, dentalium shell wedding veils (see visual), and buffalo hide containers. The goods traded there were not mass-manufactured goods, but objects made by skilled artisans often from raw materials that originated hundreds of miles away. The Chinook Indians on the northwest coast would have been very surprised to hear themselves described as poor. Their grand potlatch feasts held in summer and fall reflected great wealth.

Different cultures value different things. Lewis and Clark could never quite understand why the Indians wanted the blue beads and other "trinkets" that they brought with them. Clark wrote that the Chinookans "prefer beeds to any thing and will part with the last mouthful or articles of clothing they have for a fiew of those beeds." Yet the Indian desire for beads was no different than the European-American desire for little metal disks with the faces of their leaders stamped on them, which the Indians pierced and used as jewelry. Indians, for their part, also found it hard to understand why European traders



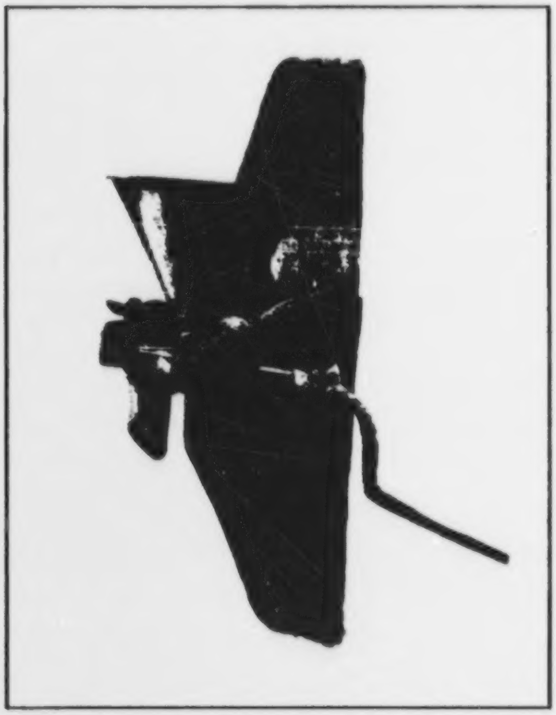
This 1816 engraving, by William Strickland, shows Meriwether Lewis wearing his otter skin from Shoshone leader Cameahwait. (Missouri Historical Society)

placed high value on beaver and otter pelts.

Members of the Lewis and Clark expedition viewed Native American women in ways further reflective of their cultural difference. Though they had very little direct contact with Indian women, Lewis and Clark wrote about the downtrodden Native American women doing "the drudgery as common amongst the Savages." According to the European-Americans, "The Mandans, Minitarees, etc., treat their women as subservient." The women "I may say [are] perfect slaves to the men." Indian women did work hard, but that work resulted in economic power. In Mandan culture, for example, the women controlled the food supplies. Women also owned the lodges. When Lewis and Clark met with Mandan leader Shehek-Shote in his lodge, they were really meeting in the chief's wife's lodge. And, in the matrilineal Mandan society (matrilineal means that family lineage was traced through the mother's family rather than the father's, as it was in European-American patrilineal society), children belonged to the woman's family. Women of Lewis and Clark's world of upper-class Virginia may have had an easier life in some ways, but they had limited power. A woman of Virginia could not vote, hold public office, make a contract, or sue in court; and when she married her property became her husband's. Her children belonged to their father's family, and a divorced or widowed woman like Lewis's mother risked losing custody of her children. In many ways, then, Mandan women would have been shocked by the status of women in Lewis and Clark's world.

The realm of diplomacy and politics offers yet another example of the challenges of encounter across cultures. When the Lewis and Clark party traveled upriver into Sioux territory in late September 1804, they didn't stop to consider how their party might look to the people on the river bank, the Teton Sioux. As they came around a bend in the river, the Teton Sioux saw armed boats loaded with trade goods headed upriver to their trading rivals. By Indian custom, rivers belonged to the people who controlled the banks, and tribes claimed a right to charge importers of goods and to stop arms shipments to their enemies upriver. They also didn't realize that from the Sioux perspective, the Plains were a patchwork of tribal territories and trading networks, with the Sioux as the major player in the field. European powers were minor players on the sidelines.

Many times cultural encounters result in exchange. Along their route, the Corps of Discovery exchanged gifts, music, information, clothing, and medicine. For medicine, Lewis and Clark used a combination of professional and folk medicinal practices to treat both their men and Indians. Prior cultural exchange with other peoples had resulted in providing some of the most effective drugs in Lewis' medicine box. The medicinal discoveries of indigenous people on other continents, such as quinine made of Peruvian tree bark, and opium from Turkish poppies, had been added to the list of available remedies in early America thanks to such exchanges. Lewis also added to his medicinal knowledge by observing Indian treatments. In one instance, Clark used poultices of cous roots and wild ginger to treat an infection in one of the men — a Nez Perce remedy. Another time the men built a Nez Perce-style sweat lodge and used steam to cure Corps member William Bratton's back pain. At other times Clark treated Indians with medicine and medicinal practices that were based on European-American knowledge, including eye drops, laudanum, and bleeding.



Eighteenth-century Corn Mill. (Colonial Williamsburg Foundation) In an attempt to introduce the Indians to mechanized agriculture, Thomas Jefferson had suggested that Lewis take along "some steel or cast iron corn mills to give to the Indians or to trade with them." For centuries Mandan and Hidatsa women had been doing the backbreaking labor of pounding corn with mortars and pestles. But Lewis and Clark presented the mill to the men, reflecting the fact that in their society, men did most of the agricultural labor. A year later a visiting fur trader "saw the remains of an excellent large corn mill, which the foolish fellows had demolished to barb their arrows." Had Lewis and Clark given the mill to the women, it might have been put to the intended use.

Often encounter is driven by curiosity. Many Indians had never seen a man of African descent before. One Hidatsa chief, Le Borgne, came to meet with Lewis and Clark in part because he

Historical oral tradition recorded in early 1900s*

"When the dried meat was brought to the men [the Corps of Discovery], they just looked at it and put it back. It was really good to eat, but they seemed to think it was bark or wood. Also, they didn't know that camas roots are good to eat..."

Sophie Moiesse, Salish
Early 1900s

"They [The Corps of Discovery] did not take with them the robes and clothing Chief Three Eagles had given them. Perhaps the white men did not understand that they were gifts."

Pierre Pichette, Salish
Early 1900s

*Clark, Ella. *Indian Legends from the Northern Rockies.* Norman: Okla. University Press, 1966. pp. 130-131.

was curious about a black man, referring to York, Clark's slave and the only African-American member of the party, with the expedition. The Salish in present-day Montana have an oral tradition about their encounter with York: "He had painted himself in charcoal, my people thought. In those days it was the custom for warriors, when returning home from battle, to prepare themselves before reaching camp. Those who had been brave and fearless, the victorious ones in battle, painted themselves in charcoal. When the warriors returned to their camp, people knew at once which ones had been on the warpath. So the black man, they thought, had been the bravest of this party." The Indians who met York most likely never realized that legally, he was Clark's property. While the practice of owning slaves was not uncommon in many Indian societies, slavery in Indian culture was not racially based, and a slave's status in society could change. What would Indians have thought of American slavery?

While the Lewis and Clark expedition involved encounters and exchanges that had broad social and national meanings, it triggered more personal transformations as well. In his meeting with Shoshone leader Cameahwait, Lewis underwent just such a personal transformation. The meeting marks perhaps the moment during the expedition when Lewis came closest to understanding a Native perspective. Desperate to find the Shoshones in order to obtain horses, Lewis was thrilled to meet up with the tribe. Without a translator, Lewis used an array of gestures to communicate friendship to the chief. The Shoshones reciprocated, somewhat wary of the strangers. It was a crucial moment in the expedition and Lewis needed to earn the trust of the Shoshones in order to buy time until Clark and the rest of the party arrived. Sacagawea, the only person who spoke the Shoshone language, was with Clark's party and therefore could not offer

Present-day statements by Native Americans

"We had a good life until some across water people came here and told us that we were poor and wretched. It was a good life. We had everything provided to us. The only thing we lacked was glass and metal which probably brought another phase of probably improvement in our lifeways. But at the same time, our perception of ourselves was that we had a good life. So how can someone else come along and say you're poor and wretched? You eat the intestines of deer so you must be poor and wretched... Our lifeways are different, but we perceived ourselves as having a good life even though it may lack glass and metal and may lack the ability to write and transfer knowledge... but it was a good life. We sought truth and justice just like any other peoples in the world..."

Allen Pinkham, Nez Perce
December 2002

"The word drudgery always gets me because nothing was a drudgery—when a woman was tanning a hide, she was singing songs putting her love in there. She was doing it because she was going to make a gift for her husband, her grandfather, grandson, granddaughter, she was putting love into it. So none of the work they were doing was drudgery. When she was planting she was doing it with love songs, prayers and so I don't think any of the work that was done was drudgery.... Every time the women went out and had to dig a whole garden they did it because they loved their family. I always envision that instead of drudgery it is pure love that the women have put into things... a lot of the work is not drudgery. Even today our hands get sore when we're sewing, making moccasins, and stuff, it's because we really want to do nice work for our children, give a gift away...it's a symbol of love...Indian women really felt a lot for their families and communities."

LaDonna Brave Bull Allard, Sioux
December 2002

assistance. Cautious of being led into a trap, the chief decided to symbolically transform the strangers into Shoshones. It turned into a double transformation. "The chief with much ceremony put tippets about our necks such as they themselves wore. To give them further confidence I put my cocked hat with feather on the chief and my over shirt being of the Indian form my hair disheveled and skin well browned with the sun I wanted no further addition to make me a complete Indian in appearance. The men followed my example and we were soon completely metamorphosed." Lewis understood the chief's strategy in the exchange, but also seemed to gain a deeper respect for the moment. He kept the otter skin mantle the rest of the journey, had a portrait painted of himself wearing it while in Philadelphia after the expedition, and eventually gave the clothes to Charles Willson Peale's museum, where it was mounted on a wax likeness of him, memorializing that moment for all to see.

As the above examples demonstrate, consideration of the various perspectives in exploration and encounter reveals a fascinating layer in the study of the Lewis and Clark expedition. Students who decide to research the expedition should attempt to identify the assumptions and expectations that the members of the Corps of Discovery brought with them.

This article is based on research and interpretive ideas presented in the upcoming traveling exhibition "Lewis & Clark: The National Bicentennial Exhibition," curated by Carolyn Gilman and developed by the Missouri Historical Society in St. Louis. Tim Grove is the educator for this exhibition.

Peace Medal Diplomacy

Lesson Plan

Introduction

Lewis and Clark were charged with opening diplomatic relations with a variety of Indian nations whose cultures were unfamiliar to them. They utilized a number of strategies to accomplish this, one being the presentation of "peace medals" as symbols of friendship and alliance. Lewis and Clark's encounters with Native Americans often were complex diplomatic meetings during which the two were challenged with communicating Jefferson's message across an unknown cultural landscape. A look at peace medal diplomacy offers a window into these complex encounters.

This lesson seeks to broaden student understanding of the challenges of crossing cultural boundaries, using the Lewis and Clark expedition as a case study. It begins with a focus on a historical object related to the expedition: a Jefferson peace medal. Students look at the medal from several perspectives, analyzing its meaning and use. The lesson then broadens its scope to engage students in analysis of documents.

Primary source materials featured

1. Reproduction Jefferson peace medal
2. Lewis and Clark Journal entry – August 3, 1804 (facsimile and transcript)
3. Certificate of loyalty – c. 1803
4. Lewis and Clark speech to the Oto Indians – August 4, 1804
5. Excerpt from an interview with Otis Halfmoon, Nez Perce

Student Objectives

- To analyze a historical object as a primary source
- To think critically about motives and expectations related to a historic event
- To draw conclusions from primary source evidence
- To describe several perspectives of the Lewis and Clark expedition
- To list at least three challenges to cross-cultural exchange

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson fits into the curriculum by having students:

- Reconstruct the literal meaning of a historical passage; Identify the central questions a historical narrative addresses; Read historical narratives imaginatively; Evidence historical perspectives; Draw upon visual sources. (Historical Thinking Standards, Historical Comprehension, Standards 2A, 2B, 2C, 2D, 2G)
- Compare and contrast different sets of ideas, values, personalities, behaviors, and institutions; Consider multiple perspectives. (Historical Thinking Standards, Historical Analysis and Interpretation, Standards 3B, 3D)
- Identify the central questions a historical narrative addresses. (Historical Thinking Standards, Historical Comprehension, Standard 2B)
- This lesson fits into United States History Standards Era 4, Expansion and Reform, 1801-1861. Standard 1: United States territorial expansion between 1801 and 1861, and how it affected relations with external powers and Native Americans.

Background/Preparation

Peace Medal

This lesson focuses on a peace medal. (See reproduction of peace medal, page 60). The practice of presenting peace medals to Indians as tokens of friendship and symbols of allegiance did not originate with the United States. The French, British, and Spanish had distributed medals for many decades prior to the Lewis and Clark expedition. Lewis and Clark's medals came in five sizes, in order to designate five "ranks" of chief. Such hierarchy reflected their own social system more than the Indians'. European powers had been recognizing Indian leaders with medals for decades, and the tokens were valued, a later Indian agent said, as "badges of power… and trophies of renown." Given knowledgeably, they could reinforce existing power structures. Used unwisely, they imposed hierarchy where none existed, subverted Indian leadership systems, and created dissension and rivalry. United States emissaries on the Mississippi found that the Corps of Discovery's lavish distribution of medals "played the devil and all" with tribal relations, since more easterly tribes felt slighted.

Lewis and Clark brought at least 80 medals with them on their expedition, all made of silver. They included three sizes of medal (all the same design) struck for Thomas Jefferson, three designs of medal (all the same size) struck for George Washington, and United States silver dollars that they occasionally used as the smallest size of medal. They had more Washington medals than any other kind. These are often called "season" medals from the mistaken impression that they represent seasonal activities. The designs, by artist John Trumbull, were visual homilies depicting the lifestyles United States' leaders wanted Indians to adopt: a woman spinning, and man sowing wheat, and a farmer guarding domestic animals.

Journal Entry, August 3, 1804

Look at the journal entry (page 61) and note the four different spellings of "medal" (There was no standardized spelling in 1804 and Clark especially was notorious for his "creative" spelling.) Also, be sure to discuss the term "made Chiefs" — how would you decide who the chief or leader is? Lewis and Clark were not always certain about this and ended up "making chiefs" by ranking people according to the size of the medal given. Many times this ranking did not match the true hierarchy in the tribal leadership. From the time they met, Europeans were frustrated by what they saw as the individualism of Indian society. Tribes were not hierarchical, their members were part of a web of overlapping realms of authority. Leadership might shift according to circumstances, and obedience to particular roles could not always be enforced.

To tribes across North America, gifts were the universal language of good will. No alliance could exist without the generosity they symbolized. Lewis and Clark knew this, so they brought what they thought were huge quantities of goods "to brighten the chain of friendship." Some gifts, such as peace medals, were designated for tribal leaders and held symbolic meaning. They were presented as an act of establishing an official relationship between the tribe and the United States government.

It is important to note that most of the Indians on the lower Missouri River had already had years of contact with agents of the Spanish, British, and French. They would most likely have been familiar with peace medals, and the practice of presenting medals was already firmly established. However, tribes such as the Salish and Nez Perce (in present-day Montana and Idaho, respectively) had not had contact with European Americans before. There are, in short, several Native perspectives on peace medals.

Certificate of Loyalty, c. 1803

Lewis explained to the Otos that they needed these Certificates of Loyalty (page 62) "In order that the commandant at St. Louis, as well as your great father, and all his chiefs may know...that you have opened your ears to your great father's voice." Lewis and Clark brought along so many of these blank certificates to give out to leading Indian "soldiers" that they ended up with extras like this one from Clark's papers. One reason for the extras may also have been a lack of appreciation for the reverence European Americans bestowed on the slips of paper; one Oto gave his certificate back, and the captains "rebuked them verry roughly."

Activity

Hand out or place on overhead projector copies of pages 60, 61 and 62.

The practice of presenting peace medals became firmly established in the years following the Lewis and Clark expedition. The head of the Indian Office, Thomas L. McKenney wrote to the Secretary of War in 1829:

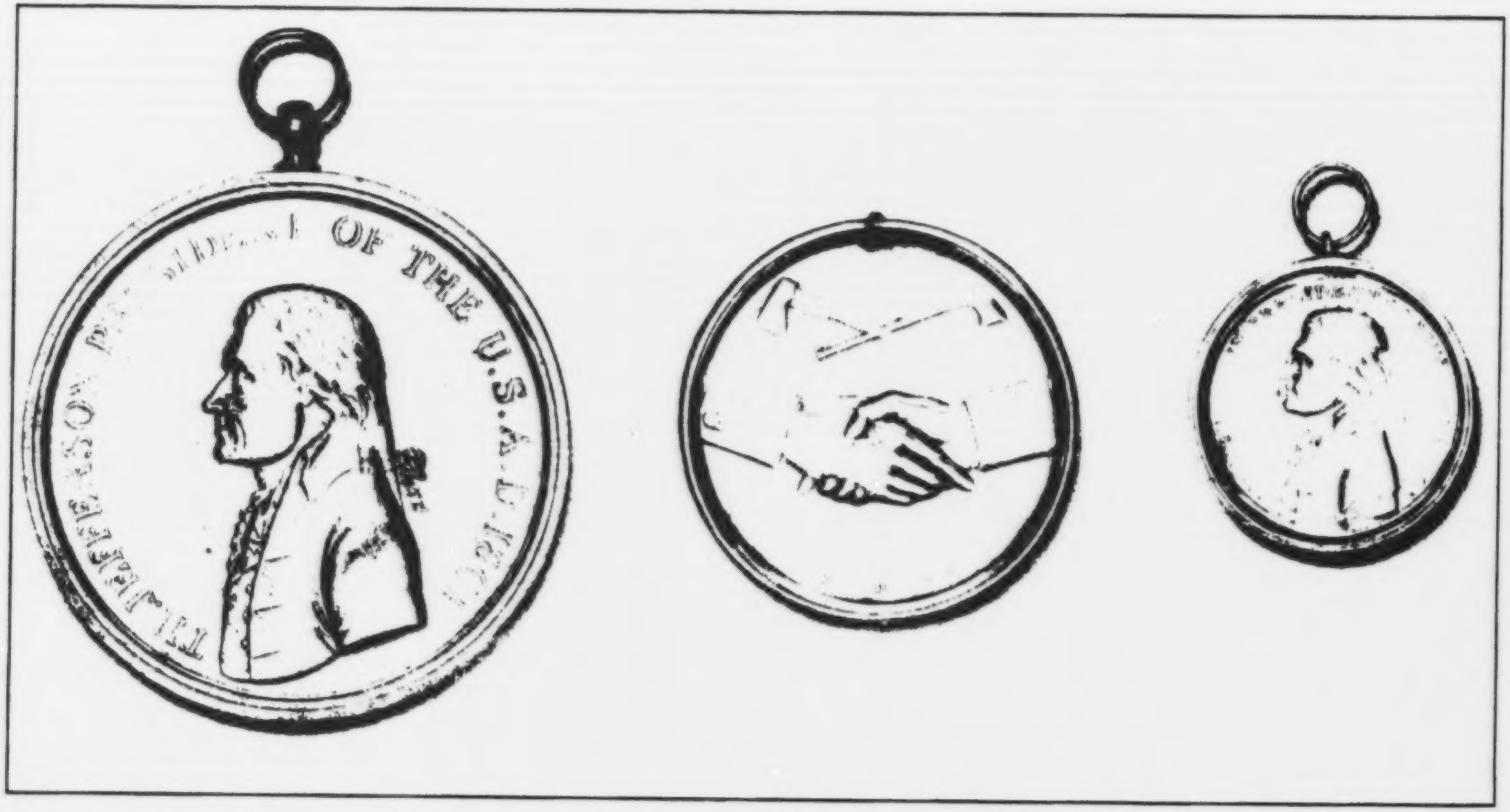
"So important is its continuance esteemed to be, that without medals, any plan of operations among the Indians, be it what it may, is essentially enfeebled. This comes of the high value which the Indians set upon these tokens of Friendship. They are, besides this indication of the Government Friendship, badges of power to them, and trophies of renown..."

Historian Francis Paul Prucha writes:

> "The medals, perhaps even more than flags, carried the full weight of national allegiance. They were personal marks, worn with pride upon the breasts of the chiefs, and unlike flags, were nearly indestructible. Within the tribes, too, possession of a medal gave rank and distinction..." (p. xiv)

1) Analyzing objects

Ask students to consider the questions beneath the images of the peace medal. Discuss their answers.


TH. JEFFERSON PRESIDENT OF THE U.S.A. D. 1801

Jefferson Peace Medal, 1801 (The American Numismatic Society)

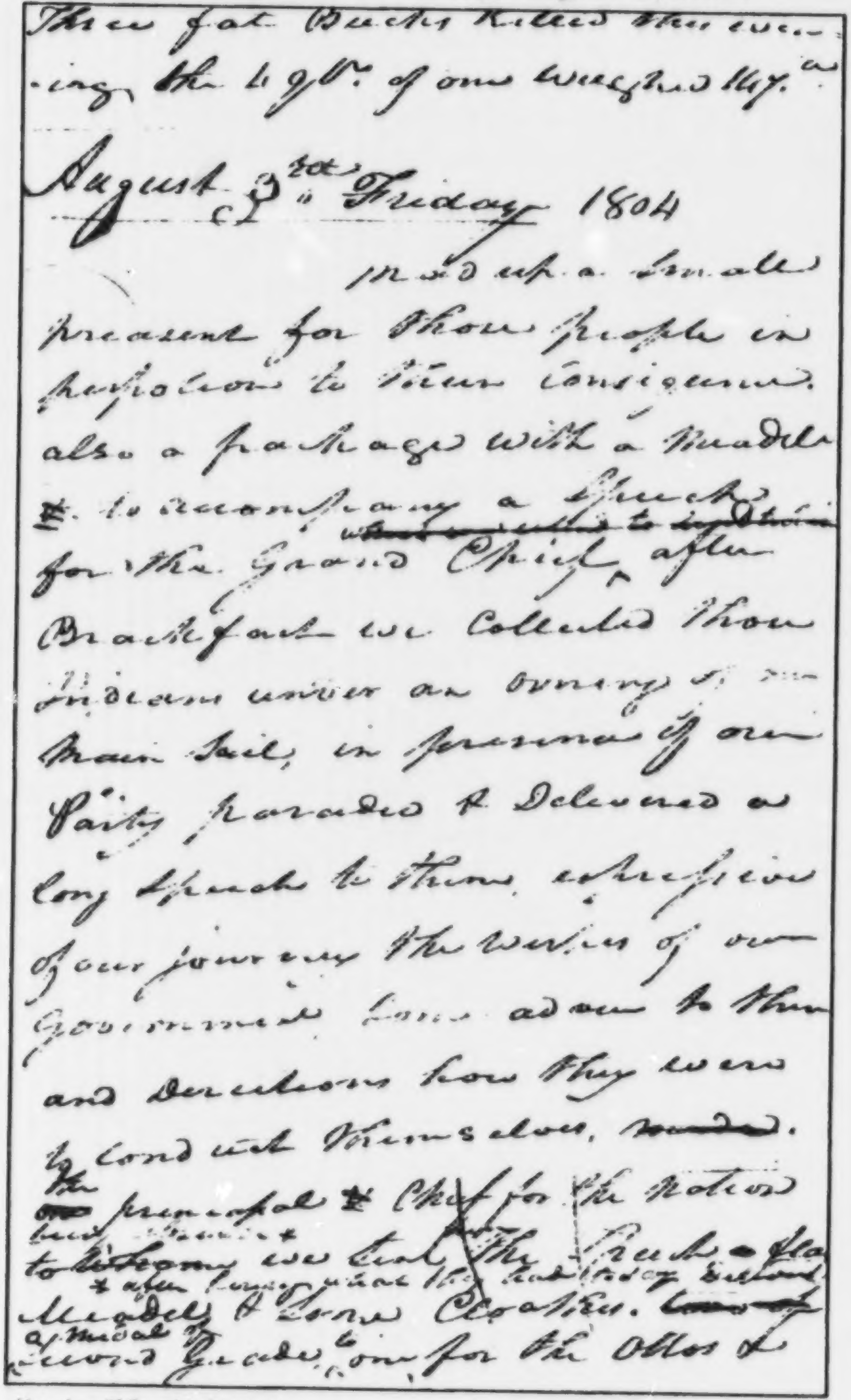
a) How are the above objects decorated? Describe any designs on them.

b) What are they? How were they used?

c) What messages could they communicate?

d) What messages might they have communicated to Native Americans?

Lewis and Clark Journal Entry, August 3, 1804



Three fat Bucks killed this even-
-ing, the 4 qtrs. of one weighed 147 lbs

August 3rd Friday 1804

Mad up a Small
present for those people in
perpotion to their consiquence.
also a package with a meadle
to accompany a Speech ~~[illegible]~~
for the Grand Chief after
Brackfast we collected those
Indians under an orning of our
Main Sail, in presence of our
Party paraded & Delivered a
long Speech to them expressive
of our journey the wishes of our
Government some advice to them
and Directions how They were
to conduct themselves, ~~[illegible]~~.
The principal Chief for the nation
being absent
to whom we sent The Speech flag
& after hering what they had to say delivered
Meadel & some Cloathes. ~~[illegible]~~
a Medal of
second Grade to one for the Ottos &

(American Philosophical Society)

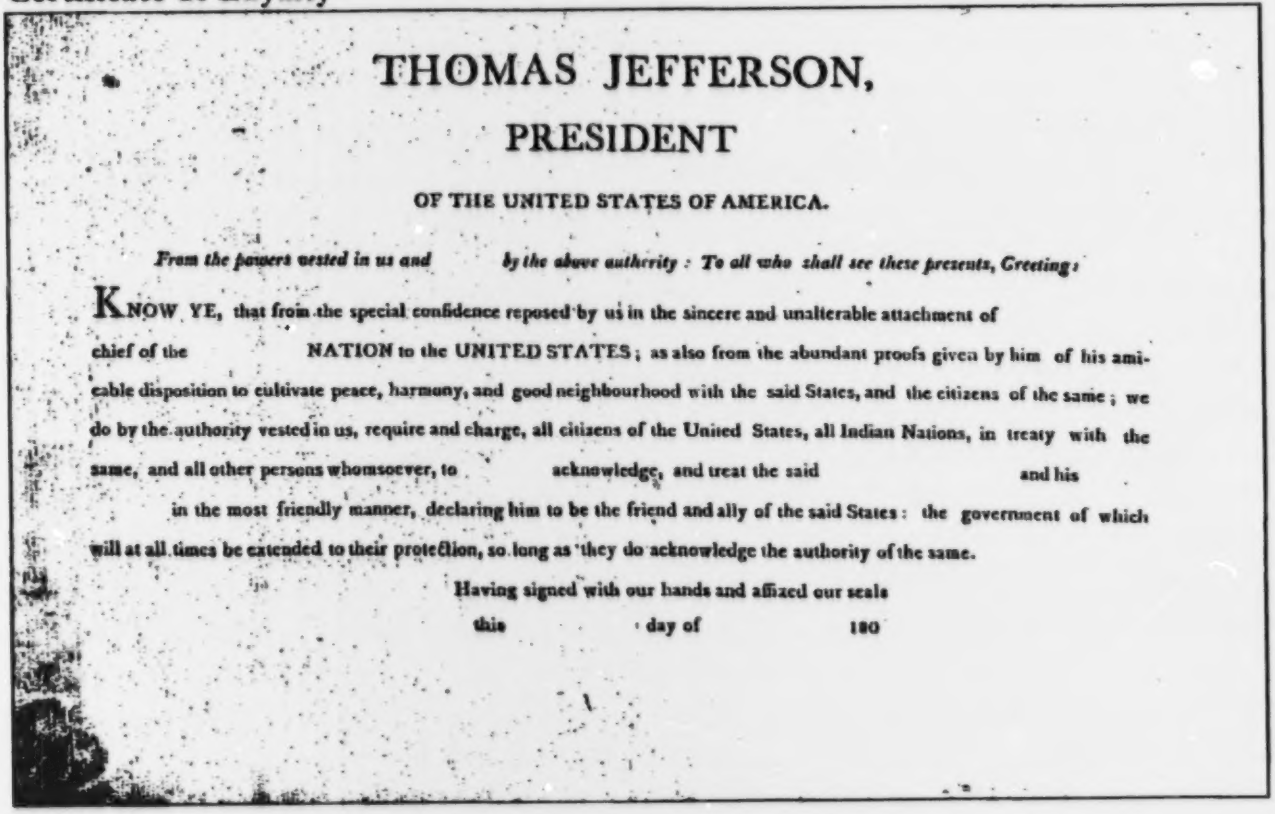
"Mad up a small present for those people in perpotion to their consequence, also a package with a meadle to accompany a speech for the Grand Chief…The principal chief for the nation being absent, we sent him the speech, flag, meadel and some cloathes. After hering what they had to say, delivered a medal of second grade to one for the Ottos and one for the Missouric and present 4 medals of a thir grade to the inferior chiefs two for each tribe…we gave them a canister of powder and a bottle of whiskey and delivered a few presents to the whole, after giving a breech cloth, some paint guartering and a meadell to those we made chiefs, after capt. Lewis's shooting the air gun…"

a) What is described here?

b) What is the perspective of the person who wrote it?

c) What were Lewis and Clark trying to accomplish through the medals?

Certificate of Loyalty



THOMAS JEFFERSON,

PRESIDENT

OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

From the powers vested in us and by the above authority : To all who shall see these presents, Greeting :

KNOW YE, that from the special confidence reposed by us in the sincere and unalterable attachment of chief of the NATION to the UNITED STATES ; as also from the abundant proofs given by him of his amicable disposition to cultivate peace, harmony, and good neighbourhood with the said States, and the citizens of the same ; we do by the authority vested in us, require and charge, all citizens of the United States, all Indian Nations, in treaty with the same, and all other persons whomsoever, to acknowledge, and treat the said and his in the most friendly manner, declaring him to be the friend and ally of the said States : the government of which will at all times be extended to their protection, so long as they do acknowledge the authority of the same.

Having signed with our hands and affixed our seals
this day of 180

(Missouri Historical Society)

a) What does it say?

b) What was the purpose of the document?

c) How would you compare the purpose of these certificates with the purpose of a peace medal?

2) Adding documentary sources to support the Lewis and Clark Perspective

Journal Entry

Have students read the Lewis and Clark Journal Entry on page 61. Have students consider the questions beneath the journal entry. Discuss how the journal entry affects their previous assumptions about the medal.

Certificate of Loyalty

Introduce the certificate on page 62 as another way that Lewis and Clark attempted to identify the tribe with the American Government. Have students read the certificate, then discuss the questions beneath the certificate.

Lewis and Clark Speech to the Oto Indians – August 4, 1804

Read the following excerpts from a speech to the Oto Indians, given on August 4, 1804 by Captain Lewis.

> "He [the President] has sent by us, one of his flags, a medal and some cloathes, such as he dressed his war chiefs with, which he directed should be given to the great chief of the Ottoe nation, to be kept by him, as a pledge of the sincerity with which he now offers you the hand of friendship."
>
> "When you accept his flag and medal, you accept therewith his hand of friendship, which will never be withdrawn from your nation as long as you continue to follow the councils which he may command his chiefs to give you, and shut your ears to the councils of Bad birds"
>
> In order that the Commandant at St. Louis, as well as your great father, and all his chiefs may know you, you must take with you, the flag, the medal and this parole which we now send you. When you great father and his chiefs see those things, they will know that you have opened your ears to your great father's voice, and have come to hear his good Councils. Send by them [whomsoever you send to the great father] also all the flags and medals which you may have received from your old fathers the French and Spaniards, or from any other nation whatever, your father will give you new flags and new medals of his own in exchange for those which you send him. It is not proper since you have become the children of the great chief of the Seventeen great nations of America, that you should wear or keep those emblems of attachment to any other great father but himself, nor will it be pleasing to him if you continue to do so."
>
> – Lewis and Clark to the Oto Indians, 4 August 1804
> [Jackson, Vol. 1, pp. 207-208.]

Discuss with students:

a) What is the message Lewis and Clark are communicating in this passage?

b) What is one purpose of the peace medal and the certificate?

3) Considering a Native-American perspective

Now ask students to consider a Native perspective. Read students the following two quotes:

"When we offered to shake hands with this great man, he did not understand the intention, and stood motionless until he was informed that shaking hands was the sign of friendship among white men."

— Trader François La Rocque about his
meeting with a Crow chief, 1805

"These men then advanced and embraced me very affectionately in their way which is by putting their left arm over your right shoulder clasping your back, while they apply their left cheek to yours and frequently vociferate the word ah-hi-e, ah-hi-e that is, I am much pleased, I am much rejoiced. Both parties now advanced and we were all caressed and besmeared with their grease and paint till I was heartily tired of the national hug."

— A Shoshone greeting described in
Lewis's journal entry of
Tuesday, August 13, 1805.

Ask students:

a) Are the symbols on the peace medal familiar to tribes? Shaking hands was not a gesture in Indian language… What might be a more effective way of communicating friendship?

b) What are other ways that cultures symbolize friendship and alliance? Design your own peace medal to communicate friendship.

c) How may Lewis and Clark's practice of "making chiefs" have looked to the Indians?

Considering Native oral tradition

Introduce an excerpt (below) by Otis Halfmoon, Nez Perce (present-day Idaho). (The full interview is available at **http://www.lewis-clark.org.**)

> "Lewis and Clark left an impact. They gave out their medals, and so forth, and the Nez Perce weren't quite sure what to do with these things. It was a nice gift, and all. But again, too, that's another side of the story people don't really understand. It's that a lot of our tribes have purification ceremonies. They had no idea what these medals were. Maybe they had medicine on 'em. Maybe there was something that was going to destroy our people. Maybe it was something that was going to bring bad luck to our people. We had to purify those items that they gave to us. That was our way. We had to purify 'em, clean 'em. There might be bad medicine on 'em. And so they did those ceremonies, to smudge 'em, to clean 'em, to take away whatever evil might be on there. Now These things—Lewis and Clark had no idea that tribes were doin' 'em."
>
> — Otis Halfmoon, Nez Perce (present-day Idaho)

a) What new information does this offer to shed insight into the Native perspective?

4) Closing

a) What were Lewis and Clark's objectives in diplomatic meetings with various Indian tribes?

b) Can you think of different ways in which Lewis and Clark could have accomplished their objectives?

c) What are some challenges in cross-cultural negotiations?

d) Can you think of other examples today or in the past where challenges similar to those faced by Lewis and Clark and the Indians they encountered exist?

Enrichment/Extension

1. Have students research and discuss various symbols and gestures that are used to convey peace and friendship in other cultures, either during the Lewis and Clark expedition or in other period and situations, past or present.
2. Have students design a peace medal or other type of peace/negotiation gift for a specific culture: research the culture to determine the appropriate symbols that would communicate peace to this culture. Would a medal be effective? If not, what type of object would be best for this peace gift and why?

How to use this lesson for History Day entries

- Using a particular encounter between Lewis and Clark and a specific Indian nation, students could analyze a council or compare several councils.
- A project could look at the variety of gifts presented by both sides and the symbolism behind them.
- A paper could examine the speeches given by Lewis and Clark and the response of the tribal leaders as recorded by Clark.

Bibliography

Jackson, Donald D. *Letters of the Lewis and Clark Expedition with Related Documents, 1783-1854.* Urbana, Ill. University of Illinois Press, 1978.

Moulton, Gary E. ed. *The Journals of the Lewis and Clark Expedition,* 10 vols. Lincoln, Neb. University of Nebraska Press, 1996.

Prucha, Francis Paul. *Indian Peace Medals in American History.* Lincoln and London: University of Nebraska Press, 1971.

Discovering Lewis and Clark Web site: **http://www.lewis-clark.org**

Additional Resources for Lewis and Clark History Day Projects

Students interested in researching a topic related to the Lewis and Clark expedition will find a wealth of materials available.

Primary Sources

Journals

The journals from the expedition, while not officially published until 1904-05, are now accessible in a variety of formats and editions. The most recent edition is:

Moulton, Gary E., ed. *The Journals of the Lewis and Clark Expedition*, 10 vols. Lincoln, Neb. University of Nebraska Press, 1996.

This edition includes the known journals kept by members of the Corps: Patrick Gass, John Ordway, Charles Floyd, and Joseph Whitehouse.

Other versions available include:

DeVoto, Bernard. *The Journals of Lewis and Clark*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1953.

A single volume that includes the main events and descriptions.

Thwaites, Reuben Gold. *Original Journals of the Lewis and Clark Expedition 1804-1806*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1905.

Jones, Landon Y. *The Essential Lewis and Clark*. Ecco Press, 1999.

A small volume that includes only the essentials.

Coues, Elliott, ed. *History of the Expedition under the Command of Lewis and Clark*. New York: Frances P. Harper, 1893. Reprinted by Dover Publications Inc., New York.

For students desiring to see copies of the originals, they are available on microfilm. Microfilm of the journals owned by the American Philosophical Society are available in various research libraries around the country. Journals owned by the Missouri Historical Society should be available in microfilm format in August 2003 (available for purchase and interlibrary loan).

Online are several sites that include excerpts from the journals. These include:

http://xroads.virginia.edu/~HYPER/JOURNALS/journals.html – University of Virginia — Lewis and Clark journals

http://www.pbs.org/lewisandclark/archive/idx_jou.html
PBS – excerpts from the journals.

http://www.amphilsoc.org/library/guides/lcills.htm
Complete list of illustrations from the journals.

http://lewisandclarkjournals.unl.edu/
The Journals of the Lewis and Clark Expedition Online—the text of the Gary Moulton/University of Nebraska edition of the journals.

Patrick Gass's journal has been published separately:

MacGregor, Carol Lynn. *The Journals of Patrick Gass, Member of the Lewis and Clark Expedition*. Missoula: Mountain Press Publishing Co., 1997.

Letters

The complete correspondence related to the expedition is published in:

Jackson, Donald D. *Letters of the Lewis and Clark Expedition with Related Documents 1783-1854*. Urbana, Ill. University of Illinois Press, 1978.

A recent publication includes a wealth of personal letters written by Clark to his oldest brother over a period of nineteen years. There are a number of letters that specifically relate to the expedition, including some written during it, several about Clark's complicated relationship with his slave York, and several describing Clark's pain at the death of Lewis:

Holmberg, James J., ed. *Dear Brother: Letters of William Clark to Jonathan Clark*. New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 2002.

The Missouri Historical Society in St. Louis owns several major collections of documents related to the Expedition. These include the Clark Papers, Lewis Collection, Thomas Jefferson Collection, and the Bates Family Papers. Additional collections also contain documents relating to the expedition. For more information, e-mail *archives@mohistory.org*. The Clark and Lewis collections also will be available on microfilm in Fall 2003 for purchase and interlibrary loan.

The Thomas Jefferson Papers in the Library of Congress are online at:

http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/mtjhtml/mtjhome.html

The National Archives in Washington, D.C., also owns various documents related to the expedition.

Court documents online

http://stlcourtrecords.wustl.edu/about-lewis-and-clark-series.cfm
These case files consist of 81 court actions in which Meriwether Lewis, William Clark or other members of the Corps of Discovery are defendants, plaintiffs, or play a prominent role. The majority of cases are disputes concerning promissory notes, debts, and the payment and assignment of notes and debts.

Maps

Moulton, Gary E. ed. *Atlas of the Lewis and Clark Expedition.* (This atlas is volume 1 of the Moulton edition of the journals cited above.)

Plamondon, Martin II. *Lewis and Clark Trail Maps: A Cartographic Reconstruction, vol. 1.* Pullman, Wash. Washington State University Press, 2000. This book includes modern re-creations of the maps.

Recent research and maps relating to the expedition in Missouri are available online at
http://lewisclark.geog.missouri.edu/index.shtml

Botanical Specimens

The bulk of the known botanical specimens are at the Academy of Natural Sciences in Philadelphia. The Academy has recently produced a CD about the collection.

The Lewis and Clark Herbarium on CD is an Academy of Natural Sciences Digital Imagery Study Set by Earle E. Spamer and Richard M. McCourt. Digital images of every plant in the Lewis & Clark Herbarium.

Images of both the Academy of Natural Sciences Lewis and Clark herbarium and the Royal Botanic Gardens at Kew Lewis and Clark herbarium are the focus of volume 12 of Gary Moulton's edition of the Journals cited above.

Native Americans

Many tribes that Lewis and Clark encountered still live in the vicinity of the trail. Many of them have built cultural centers and tribal museums located on tribal lands. Many tribes also have Web sites that can direct a student to the right place for research.

The Peabody Museum of Archaeology and Ethnology, Harvard University has an excellent online exhibition that focuses on a variety of ethnographic objects relating to the expedition at

http://www.peabody.harvard.edu Lewis_and_Clark/

Lewis & Clark: The National Bicentennial Exhibition

This exhibition will feature an abundance of historical evidence related to the expedition including artifacts, documents, and interviews with Native Americans. The exhibition begins in St. Louis in 2004 and then travels to Philadelphia, Denver, Portland, and Washington, D.C. Both the exhibition book and the Web site are listed below under secondary sources.

Historic Sites

When possible, there is no substitute for visiting the sites where the historical event you are researching happened. Many sites related to the expedition still exist today. The National Lewis and Clark Trail Heritage Foundation and the National Park Service work together to preserve the location of the trail. A variety of interpretive centers, visitor centers, and museums lie along the trail. Some are National Park Service sites, some are state-owned sites and some have other ownership. Below are several of the major ones:

Monticello, home of Thomas Jefferson, Charlottesville, Virginia

The Lewis and Clark Interpretive Center, Hartford, Illinois

The Jefferson National Expansion Memorial [The Arch], St. Louis, Missouri (NPS)

North Dakota Lewis and Clark Interpretive Center, Washburn, North Dakota [also reproduction of Fort Mandan nearby]

Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site, Stanton, North Dakota (NPS)

The Lewis and Clark National Historic Trail Interpretive Center, Great Falls, Montana (National Forest Service)

Nez Perce National Historic Park, Spaulding, Idaho (NPS)

Fort Clatsop National Memorial, Astoria, Oregon (NPS)

Secondary Sources

There are many secondary sources about the Lewis and Clark expedition. This list is just a starting point.

We Proceeded On, the official publication of the Lewis and Clark Trail Heritage Foundation. It is published quarterly.

Ambrose, Stephen E. *Undaunted Courage: Meriwether Lewis, Thomas Jefferson, and the Opening of the American West.* New York: Simon & Schuster, 1996.

Duncan, Dayton and Ken Burns. *Lewis & Clark: The Journey of the Corps of Discovery.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1997.

Furtwangler, Albert. *Acts of Discovery: Visions of America in the Lewis and Clark Journals.* Urbana, Ill. University of Illinois Press, 1993.

Gilman, Carolyn. *Lewis & Clark: Across the Divide.* Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution Press, 2003. Accompanies *Lewis & Clark: The National Bicentennial Exhibition.*

Ronda, James P. *Finding the West: Explorations with Lewis and Clark.* Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 2001.

Ronda, James P. *Lewis and Clark Among the Indians.* Lincoln, Neb. University of Nebraska Press, 2nd edit. 2002.

Ronda, James P., ed. *Voyages of Discovery: Essays on the Lewis and Clark Expedition.* Helena, Mont. Historical Society Press, 1998.

Sturtevant, William C., general editor. *Handbook of the North American Indians.*

www.lewis-clark.org
A very comprehensive Web site about the expedition, including the cultural context.

http://www.l3-lewisandclark.com/
A site that incorporates video clips of interviews with Native Americans.

www.lewisandclarkexhibit.org
Web site for *Lewis & Clark: The National Bicentennial Exhibition* features a substantial collection of images of documents and artifacts that will be featured in this traveling exhibition. The large educational section of the site will debut in mid-summer 2003. The virtual exhibition will debut in January of 2004 when the physical exhibition opens in St. Louis.

* * *

SPECIAL OFFER

"The airlift was the turning point in West Berliner' perception of Americans. From then on, we we regarded them as friends and benefactors rather than as conquerors."

Anonymous Berliner, p 73

BERLIN
And the American Military
A Cold War Chronicle

"We always said that if the Russians wanted to take Berlin, all they had to do was put POW signs around the Wall … We didn't have a chance."

Capt. J. Graham, p. 122

Berlin and the American Military: A Cold War Chronicle

Robert P. Grathwol and Donita M. Moorhus

New York University Press. October 1999
Hardcover, 200 pages, 174 b&w photographs, 41 color photographs, 13 maps

UNZAHLBARE

A cauldron of tension, intrigue, and conflict, Berlin was a microcosm of the Cold War that divided all of Europe. Here is the story in words and pictures of that city and the thousands of American soldiers and civilians who were there between 1945 and 1994. These former conquerors developed over time a unique relationship with the city's inhabitants who understood that American soldiers served as guarantors of firm U.S. resolve that West Berlin would remain free.

BERLIN
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Changing Hands: The American Economy and the Exchange of Power and Money During World War I

By Jessica Tarbox
National History Day

Introduction

In 1914, the United States was financially indebted to the European leaders of the international community, particularly Great Britain. The United States was the leading debtor nation in the world, due to the rapid growth of industry in the late nineteenth century and heavy borrowing to finance such growth. By 1919, five years and a world war later, world financial power had shifted, and New York acquired the distinction London once had: It became the hub of world economic affairs. World War I ripped through much of Europe, leaving governments and families barren and financially insecure. The United States, however, due to its associate role in the war, emerged relatively unscathed and with the most stable banking system in the world.

The major factors contributing to this shift of financial power were threefold: 1. The evolution of the American economic system since independence from Britain established the United States as an ambitious industrial nation capable of competing with strong European markets; 2. The United States' delayed entry into WWI permitted the American economy to flourish in trade with nations at war; and 3. The absence of battles on American soil allowed the United States to avoid the physical devastation that crippled several European nations. These factors were not only the driving forces behind the United States' rise in pecuniary influence, but they also were integral players in the maturity and extension of America's system of trade. Thus, an exchange of financial world dominance between Europe and the United States can be connected to the evolution of a more basic system of exchange: the trade of goods and services between the United States and Europe.

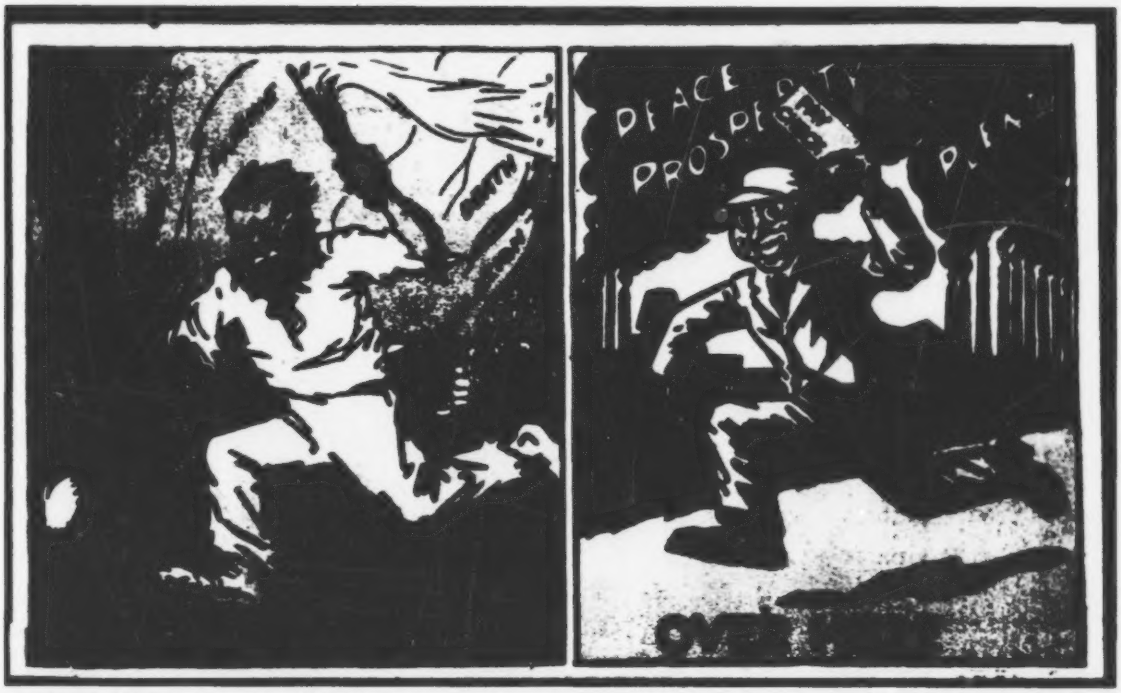
Objectives

- To list the reasons for the shift in world financial power from Europe to the United States during and after World War I.
- To explain the basic financial situation of the United States before, during and after World War I.
- To analyze the cause-and-effect relationships of the exchange of goods and services and how conflict can alter such relationships.

Connection with curriculum

This lesson fits into the curriculum by having students:

- Compare and contrast differing sets of ideas, values, personalities, behaviors, and institutions by identifying likenesses and differences. (Historical Thinking Standards, 3A)
- Interrogate historical data by uncovering the social, political, and economic context in which it was created; testing the data source for its credibility, authority, authenticity, internal consistency and completeness; and detecting and evaluating bias, distortion, and propaganda by omission, suppression, or invention of facts. (Historical Thinking Standards, 4C)



During World War I, economic conditions in European nations were grim, while the American economy prospered. The artist of this 1919 American poster was very aware of the stark differences between European nations' and the United States' financial situations. (Library of Congress)

- Evaluate the implementation of a decision by analyzing the interests it served; estimating the position, power, and priority of each player involved; and evaluating its costs and benefits from a variety of perspectives. (Historical Thinking Standards, 5F)
- Understand the impact at home and abroad of the United States' involvement in World War I. (United States History Standards Era 7: The Emergence of Modern America, Standard 2C)
- Understand the global scope and costs of the war. (World History Standards Era 8: A Half-Century of Crisis and Achievement, Standard 2B)

Primary sources featured

1. Graph, *Percentage of Debt and Comparison of National Wealth and Debt,* from The Geography of the Great War by Frank M. McMurray, 1919
2. Letter from Secretary of State Robert Lansing to President Woodrow Wilson, 1915

Background

World War I marked a period of swift economic change for the United States and an exchange of power unprecedented in American history. Americans, however, were not strangers to economic change: In the 138 years between the declaration of independence from England and the start of World War I, the United States explored new economic practices and transformed its economic ideology as it progressed from colony to new nation to independent world power.

In the early to mid-eighteenth century, England established a system of mercantilism in the colonies, blocking colonial trade with other countries and likewise controlling the development of manufactured goods by placing the emphasis on colonial production of raw goods. During the revolutionary period, however, Americans proclaimed economic independence from England and began to dabble in exchange with other nations, including France, Holland, Spain and the West Indies. The beginnings of independent trade and the incorporation of greater industrial progress laid the groundwork for the new nation's increased development and adoption of capitalism in the nineteenth century.

Between 1815 and the Civil War — the years of the first U.S. Industrial Revolution — the United States experienced many remarkable economic changes as it embraced capitalism; among other things, the creation and extension of railroads and the integration of the factory system into American industry contributed to the United States' rise among the financial powers of the world. The Civil War occurred at a time of rapid economic development, and the increased need for military supplies and sharply rising prices accelerated the technological growth, launching the second Industrial Revolution. The economy-boosting effect of the war, western expansion, a population explosion due to increased immigration, and a shift from agricultural to industrial employment catapulted the United States from the world's fourth-largest industrial output producer (behind England, France and Germany) in 1860 to the world's leader in 1905. In the years just prior to World War I, the total volume of the United States' industrial production surpassed the combined efforts of England, France and Germany.

Despite a quick ascension to the ranks of the world's industrial leaders, the United States continued to be a debtor nation throughout the nineteenth century. Capital from England and other European countries continued to flow into the United States to finance its technological growth, and much-needed raw materials (such as iron for U.S. railways) still were imported from Europe, where the materials were cheaper. The United States exported cotton and foodstuffs to Europe, but in insufficient quantities to compensate for huge amounts of imports of crude materials such as rubber and tin, thus leaving the country in debt to European nations. England and other nations, however, invested heavily in American stocks and bonds, and the purchase of these securities balanced the U.S. trade debts. The United States owed the European nations for Europe's financial assistance as the United States expanded industrially, but as long as Europe continued to invest in American securities, the United States could afford to continue the somewhat uneven trades.

World War I generated a dramatic exchange of financial power between Europe and the United States. When war broke out in Europe in July 1914, European nations quickly cashed in their American securities in order to obtain gold to finance the war. Additionally, Europeans had traditionally purchased the largest percentage of cotton and foodstuffs from the United States. Thus, fighting in Europe paralyzed the United States' exportation of these goods as European money was used to purchase much-needed armaments instead of standard exports. Foreign stock exchanges shut down, and the New York Stock Exchange followed suit, closing on July 31, 1914 and opening again on Dec. 13, 1914 for restricted trading.

But in late spring and summer of 1915, the financial tide began to turn as many European nations appealed to the United States for financial assistance. As the European continent became ensconced in war, American banks seemed to be a safer place in which to store European gold, so the gold that had vanished from American securities in the summer of 1914 began to cross back over the Atlantic Ocean within five

Financial terms glossary

Capitalism
An economic system in which resources and means of production are privately owned; and prices, production, and the distribution of goods are determined mainly by competition in a free market.

Creditor nation
A nation that owes less to foreign governments, businesses, and consumers than foreigners owe to domestic governments, businesses, and consumers.

Debt
Something owed, such as money, goods or services. Also, an obligation or liability to pay or render something to someone else.

Debtor nation
A nation that owes more to foreign governments, businesses, and consumers than foreigners owe to domestic governments, businesses, and consumers.

Export
The sale of goods to a foreign country.

Import
Goods and services produced by the foreign sector and purchased by the domestic economy.

months. Also, Europe desperately needed munitions, steel and wheat (due largely to the migration of European farmers into the military, which assured small or poor harvests) and turned to the United States for help. In the beginning, the United States insisted on maintaining its isolationist status during the war, but neutrality would effectively eradicate all trade with all of Europe. Americans then began selling materials indiscriminately to European nations, boosting industrial and agricultural production, and settling into a period of prosperity. The increased business led to higher American earning, which led to higher prices on Wall Street. In the process, New York replaced London as the financial center of the world.

By 1916, almost $2 billion worth of Europe's gold rested in American vaults, and with this as security, the United States made increased shipments of war supplies to Allied European nations. Germany was unable to import American supplies, due to a successful British blockade, and Germany's interference in the United States' one-sided trade would eventually spur American entry into the conflict. Germany embarked on submarine warfare in British waters, resolutely trying to cut off Great Britain's connection to outside supplies. The Central power sunk the British ship *Lusitania* in 1915, resulting in the death of 1,195 people, including 123 Americans. This prompted the United States' 17-month venture into the war.

After the armistice in November 1918, Europe was badly scarred. The Allied and Central powers both had lost an entire generation of lives, and the costs of war drained the nations physically and financially. Comparatively, the United States came out unscathed. American loss of life totaled 125,000, compared to Great Britain's, France's and Germany's total of four million. The American economy prospered in its three years of neutrality, while European nations spent four years accumulating massive debts.

In the years immediately succeeding the war, the United States continued to export food and supplies to Europe. By 1920, most nations in Europe were beginning to resume production of food, and thus the need for American exports was greatly reduced. The United States plunged into a sharp, brief depression in 1920-21, but by 1922, the phrase "happy days are here again" reflected U.S. economic improvement. This was not the case for Europe. The Treaty of Versailles in 1919 required Germany to make reparation payments to Allied nations, and France and England owed great amounts of money to the United States. To alleviate some of the pressure of payback, the United States could have slowed its exports to allow Europe to increase imports of goods and services to former allies, but the United States maintained its system of foreign exchange, even enacting two tariffs — the Emergency Tariff of 1921 and the Fordney-McCumber Tariff of 1922 — that would push tariffs to an all-time high and impose an even greater financial burden on European countries.

By 1921, England perceived the seriousness of its financial situation (and realized that its position as the world's financial center may have been permanently lost) and was willing to cancel payment of German reparations, if the United States was willing to cancel Allied debts. The United States refused at first, continuing to demand payment, though in smaller pieces, but later reconsidered, and the remaining debts were completely canceled in 1932. It had become evident that such tremendous amounts (the initial figure owed the United States was $9.6 billion) could not be repaid. European nations' indebtedness to the United States was a significant change from only a decade earlier, a sure sign of the exchange of financial prominence.

The enactment of tariffs hints at the United States' impatience to return to, as Warren G. Harding expressed, "normalcy." Americans were reluctant entrants into the war, and after the war, many wanted desperately to resume their isolationist lifestyle. Refusal to participate in an international economic reconstruction reflected an American determination to return to a lifestyle in which domestic problems took precedence. Self-serving economic policies were only part of a postwar movement toward isolationism; immigration laws enacted in 1921 and an overwhelming new fear of Communism and the infiltration of "Reds" into American society surfaced in the United States in the years immediately after the war.

Despite its isolation, however, the United States continued to reign as the world's financial leader, dominating industrial output and international stock exchanges. The 1920s stock markets roared, the United States was increasingly prosperous, foreign and domestic exchange improved, and stock prices rose dramatically. Americans were inspired by the economic growth potential of the 1920s and the apparent infallibility of the market, a sentiment that helped to keep the economy strong until the stock markets tumbled in October 1929.

Activity 1

Use **Document 1** after a basic study of a World War I timeline, and causes and effects of the war. Copy **Document 1** onto a transparency and have students dissect it in groups. Explain, if necessary, the definitions of debt and national wealth. What does each of the sections mean? When was this chart likely drawn? Who developed this chart? What might contemporary economists have predicted about the next few years, based on the information in this chart? What factors contributed to the United States' low percentage of debt and Great Britain's high percentage? How would Great Britain's reaction to this chart have been different if the date of the chart's creation had been 20 years earlier? What might a similar chart have looked like had it been drawn in 1870? Discuss the groups' conclusions as a class.

Financial terms glossary

Industrial Revolution	A rapid major change in an economy marked by the general introduction of power-driven machinery.
Manufactured goods	Products made or processed, especially with industrial machines.
Mercantilism	The doctrine that a nation's economy could be strengthened by governmental protection of home industries, by increased foreign exports, and by accumulating gold and silver.
National wealth	The difference between physical and financial assets a nation owns and the liabilities that nation owes.
Raw materials	Materials in their natural state, unprocessed or unrefined.
Securities	An evidence of debt or of property (as a stock certificate or bond).
Tariff	A tax on imports.

Activity 2

Use **Document 2** after a basic study of the United States' role in the war, both before and after it entered the conflict. Distribute **Document 2** and have the students read it silently. Divide the class in half and organize a debate: one half should support a continuing neutral financial status, and the other should support the financial assistance to countries at war. What are the benefits of both points of view? How would you

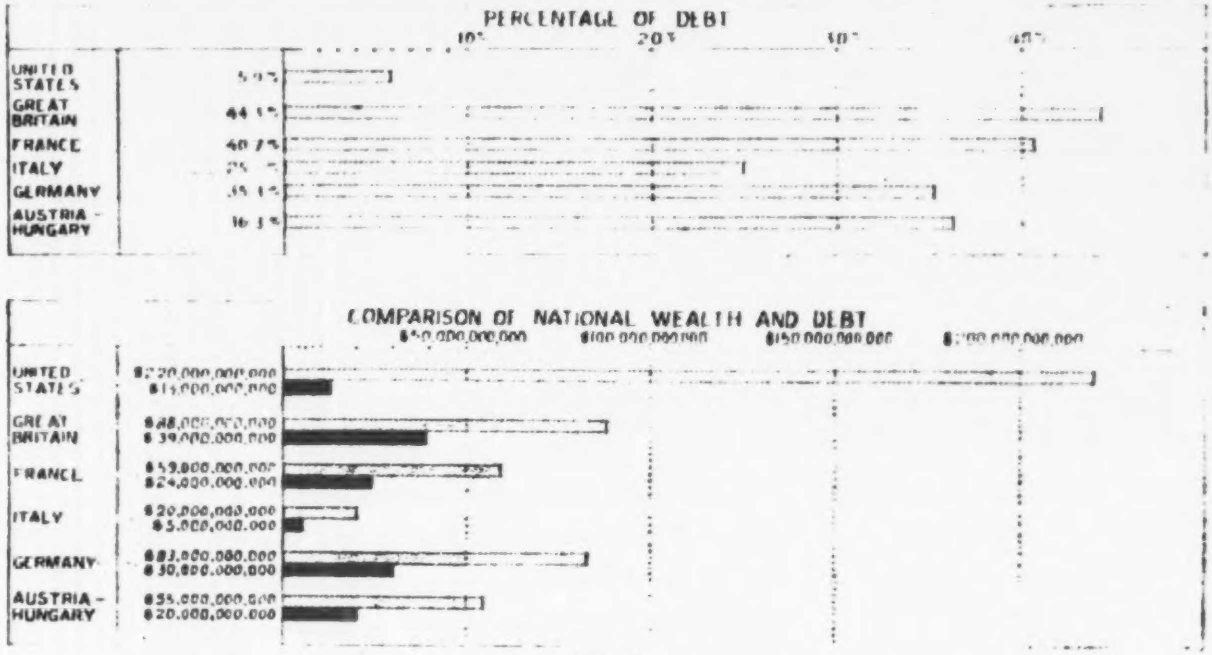


FIG. 38.

Document 1– *This chart is one of many graphs and charts in Frank M. McMurray's examination of WWI,* The Geography of the Great War.

convince President Wilson that he should follow your advice? How would your decision affect the American economy and exchange between nations?

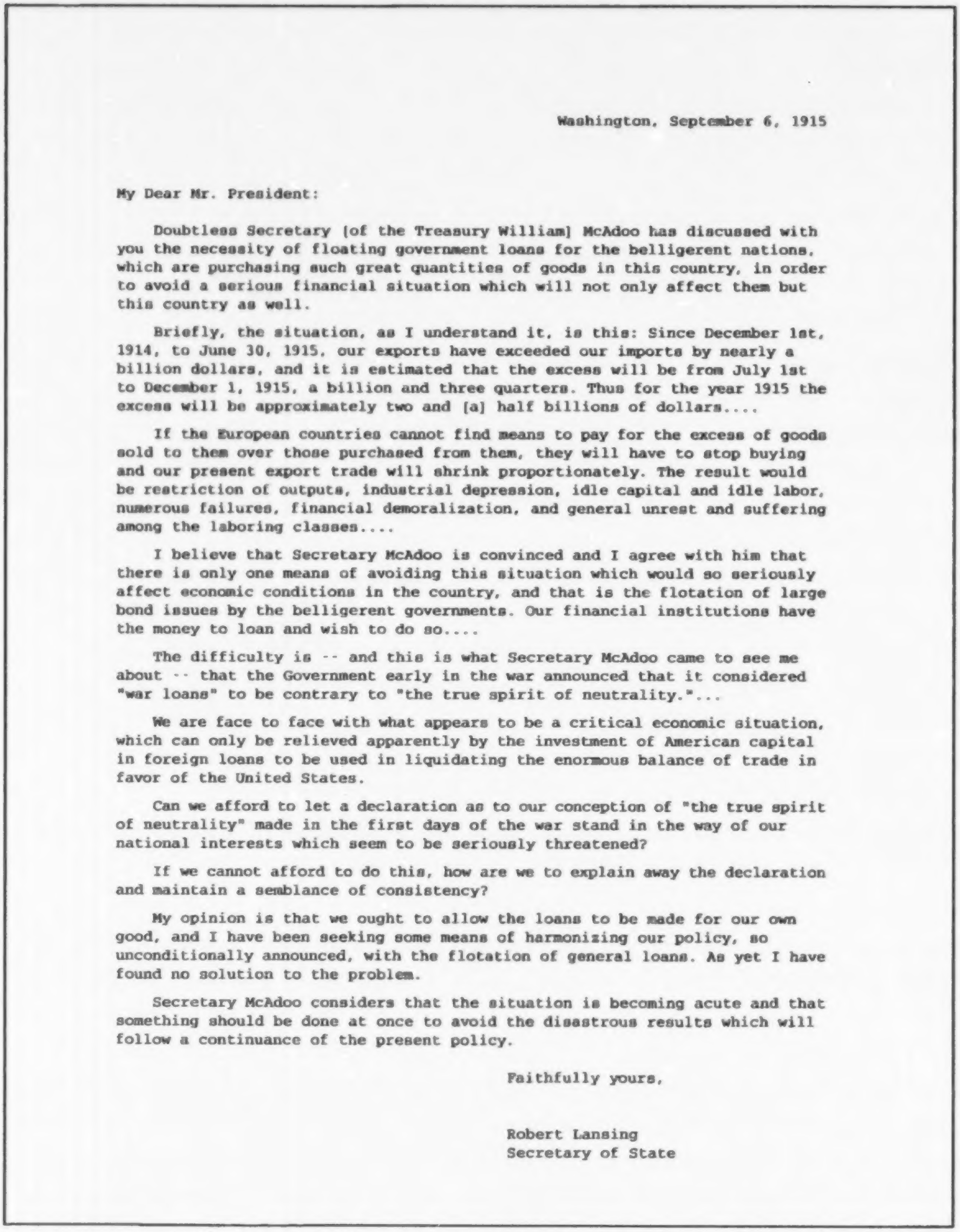
Activity 3

Based on past lessons, have students demonstrate a change over time by constructing "exchange charts." Using the years 1760 (when colonial finance was still under British control), 1870 (after the Civil War, at the beginning of the second Industrial Revolution) and 1917 (the year the United States entered WWI), construct charts explaining goods/services exchanged between Great Britain and the United States. What goods were exchanged between the countries? What were the factors contributing to different trade and the shift in financial weight? Where did the economic power lie in each of the three years, and why did it change?

Enrichment/extension

Primary documents for extended research on World War I can be found in an expansive online archive, *The World War I Document Archive* (affiliated with the Great War Document Archive, Inc., and Brigham Young University) at **www.lib.byu.edu/~rdh/wwi/.**

Provide the statistics for the United States' involvement in the war (how many dead, how many injured, how much the war cost, dates of entry and exit) and how life changed in the United States from 1914 to 1919. Divide the class into five groups and assign them each a major power (Great Britain, France, Russia, Germany or Austria-Hungary) and have them research the same statistics. The students should develop a comparison between the United States and their country, showing through pictures, charts or government documents how life was different



Washington, September 6, 1915

My Dear Mr. President:

Doubtless Secretary [of the Treasury William] McAdoo has discussed with you the necessity of floating government loans for the belligerent nations, which are purchasing such great quantities of goods in this country, in order to avoid a serious financial situation which will not only affect them but this country as well.

Briefly, the situation, as I understand it, is this: Since December 1st, 1914, to June 30, 1915, our exports have exceeded our imports by nearly a billion dollars, and it is estimated that the excess will be from July 1st to December 1, 1915, a billion and three quarters. Thus for the year 1915 the excess will be approximately two and [a] half billions of dollars....

If the European countries cannot find means to pay for the excess of goods sold to them over those purchased from them, they will have to stop buying and our present export trade will shrink proportionately. The result would be restriction of outputs, industrial depression, idle capital and idle labor, numerous failures, financial demoralization, and general unrest and suffering among the laboring classes....

I believe that Secretary McAdoo is convinced and I agree with him that there is only one means of avoiding this situation which would so seriously affect economic conditions in the country, and that is the flotation of large bond issues by the belligerent governments. Our financial institutions have the money to loan and wish to do so....

The difficulty is -- and this is what Secretary McAdoo came to see me about -- that the Government early in the war announced that it considered "war loans" to be contrary to "the true spirit of neutrality."...

We are face to face with what appears to be a critical economic situation, which can only be relieved apparently by the investment of American capital in foreign loans to be used in liquidating the enormous balance of trade in favor of the United States.

Can we afford to let a declaration as to our conception of "the true spirit of neutrality" made in the first days of the war stand in the way of our national interests which seem to be seriously threatened?

If we cannot afford to do this, how are we to explain away the declaration and maintain a semblance of consistency?

My opinion is that we ought to allow the loans to be made for our own good, and I have been seeking some means of harmonizing our policy, so unconditionally announced, with the flotation of general loans. As yet I have found no solution to the problem.

Secretary McAdoo considers that the situation is becoming acute and that something should be done at once to avoid the disastrous results which will follow a continuance of the present policy.

Faithfully yours,

Robert Lansing
Secretary of State

Document 2 – *Letter from Secretary of State Robert Lansing to President Woodrow Wilson, 1915. (www.lib.byu.edu/~rdh/wwi)* before, during and after the war. Have each group present to the class.

Each of the three primary factors contributing to the shift in financial power are open to deeper investigation. Divide the class into three groups and assign each group one of the major factors listed in the introduction. For Factor #1 (the evolution of the American economic system), have students trace the evolution of the American economic system from Reconstruction to World War I, including the changing nature of banking, the strengthening/weakening of the stock market, and the change in percentages of exports and imports. For Factor #2 (the United States' delayed entry into WWI), have students investigate the financial effects of neutrality, the economic reasons for entry into WWI, and the economic effects on U.S. and European markets in the years before the United States' entry. For Factor #3 (the absence of battles on American soil), have students research the effect of the battles upon European markets, European trade, European money and European businesses. The students should use financial charts, graphs and statistics to prove their arguments. Have the students present individually or in groups.

How this lesson can be used for History Day projects

The financial history of the United States in the first three decades of the twentieth century demonstrates a shift in the exchange of American goods and services, revealed against a backdrop of an exchange of international power.

- An exhibit could show the change in American exports and imports over time, displaying its roller coaster effect from 1914-1922. How did a country, which was a debtor nation for more than 120 years, become such a strong creditor in only five years?
- The debate about neutrality between U.S. government officials foreshadows the exchange of power in the post-war years, and this is demonstrated beautifully in letters between these government officials. The Woodrow Wilson papers, edited by Arthur Link, are an excellent repository for paper-writers seeking primary sources, especially volumes 29-64.
- A performance could contrast factory workers in the United States in Britain – how were their situations similar, and different, before and after the war?
- A broader view of the exchange of ideas during World War I, especially concerning the debate over U.S. neutrality, or a closer look at the New York Stock Exchange, may work for more advanced students.

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* * *

The Encounter with America through Numbers: Immigration and Demography

By Maria Mazzenga
National History Day

Immigrants arrive in the United States by way of the "Princess Irene," 1911, Ellis Island, New York. Photo by Geo. G. Bain. (Library of Congress, George Grantham Bain Collection)

Introduction

Thinking, perhaps, of the challenges faced by his own ancestors as they made their way from Ireland to the United States in the nineteenth century, President John F. Kennedy observed that one of the nation's great strengths lay in the exploratory spirit of the many immigrants who had decided to make America home over the centuries. The "secret of America" he believed, was that it was "a nation of people with the fresh memory of old traditions who dared to explore new frontiers, people eager to build lives for themselves in a spacious society that did not restrict their freedom of choice and action."

Immigrants, to be sure, experienced considerable hardship and varying levels of restriction as they journeyed to the United States. Indeed, many that passed through the nation's ports of entry would decide that America was not for them and head back home soon after arrival. This practice of making a visit to a new land then returning home is known as "return migration," and is an inevitable part of the uncertain journey to an unknown land. However, most *immigrants,* which by definition are permanent settlers from other lands, believed they were better off than if they had remained where they were.

As President Kennedy's comments suggest, these individuals amounted to explorers of new frontiers when they went about the business of transplanting themselves in the United States. As Svein Nilsson, a Norwegian-American immigrant, explained of the decision to migrate among many of his countrymen in the mid-nineteenth century: "Despite all the horror stories and the loud talk about the sinfulness of leaving the spot where one was born, the America fever gradually spread in wide circles; and during the following years, every spring saw large groups of emigrants... trudging through the valley... toward the sea." The often fantastic stories of America that spread throughout the world, some true and some false, summoned forth the explorer in many, often influencing more practical consideration that went into the decision to leave the homeland. For early twentieth century immigrants like Maru Strokonos, the encounter with America's large industrial cities often came as a shock. Emigrating from Eastern Europe after hearing "big stories about America" in her hometown, she was nonetheless overwhelmed when she first set foot in New York City. "I get scared when I see so many people and buildings" Strokonos explains, "I walk along street and I come to a shop they have windows full of cakes and goodies like only rich in old country can have. I go into store, but I can't speak English so I point to man and then to cookies. He put them in bag and then I show him money and take one, two pieces. I am very, very lonely and I start to cry and it gets very dark but I don't know where to go."

Immigrants who decided to remain in the United States, to make their encounter with America a lifelong experience, made exchanges between the old and new worlds, disposing of some of the old practices, absorbing new customs, and blending the old and the new in imaginative ways. Throughout the twentieth century, for example, many immigrants came to value formal education as essential to success in America, if not for themselves, then for their children. When 12-year-old Gertrude Liebman came to the United States from Palestine in 1921, her mother was told by a "woman neighbor that school is compulsory here. You must send your children to school. Well, the very next day, my mother took us to the public school... and we started our new life." One of the most dynamic features of American culture, from the earliest European contact with the Native population to the migrations to the United States triggered by the rise of the postindustrial economy, is the ongoing encounter and exchange between the old and the new that is a continuing feature of immigrant life in the United States.

Immigration to the United States, then, offers a range of possibilities for exploring this year's History Day theme, *Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History.* Embarking upon a history project centered on the immigrant experience, however, requires a basic understanding of immigration and the settlement of the United States. This lesson is designed to impart students with a general sense of the centrality of immigration to the peopling of the modern United States. In addition to giving students a knowledge of how many and which immigrants played key roles in the nation's settlement, this lesson aims to impart students with strategies for extracting useful information from statistical data. Hence, this lesson might be used to offer students interested in immigration-related History Day projects a foundation for creating such projects.

Student Objectives

- To list the numbers and varieties of immigrants that settled in the United States, with an emphasis on the 1870-1924, and the post-1965 immigration periods.

- To describe two different periods of immigration to the United States, and explain the circumstances influencing each.
- To use visual data presented in charts and tables in order to clarify, illustrate, or elaborate upon information related to immigration history.

Connection with the Curriculum

This lesson fits the curriculum by having students:

- Reconstruct patterns of historical succession and duration in which historical developments have unfolded, and apply them to explain historical continuity and change. (Historical Thinking Standards, Chronological Thinking, Standard 1F)
- Use visual and mathematical data presented in charts and tables to elaborate or clarify information presented in the historical narrative. (Historical Thinking Standards, Historical Comprehension, Standard 2F)
- Understand how the United States changed from the end of World War I to the Great Depression…by analyzing the factors the led to immigration restriction and the closing of the "Golden Door" (United Stated History Standards, Era 7: Emergence of Modern America, Standard 3)
- Understand major social and economic developments in contemporary America by evaluating how diverse peoples and their cultures have shaped American life (United States History Standards, Era 10: Contemporary United States, Standard 2)

Documents Featured

1. Table 1. Immigration to the United States: Fiscal Years 1820-1920
2. Chart B. Region of Last Residence of Legal Immigrants
3. Graph: Number of Immigrants, 1880-1930
4. Graph: Number of Immigrants, 1965-2000

Background

Although migration — people moving from one place to another — is a universal process that has taken place since the beginning of human life on earth, by far the greatest number of people who migrated did so within the last 500 years. Between the 16th century and the 21st, population growth, unequally distributed resources, natural disasters, political and religious upheaval, and, of course, improved types of transportation have affected the ebb and flow of this movement.

Emerging during this period of migratory upheaval, the United States became a unique product of migration. The first of four waves of migration is known as the "migration of settlement," and it occurred between 1492 and 1776. Major immigrant groups of this first wave were English, Spanish, French, and African. While most of the English, French, and Spanish migrants were voluntary immigrants, or those that came of their own choice, we refer to most Africans to come to America during this period as involuntary immigrants, those forced to come against their will, most often as slaves.

People came to America for a great variety of reasons: seeking adventure, land, and riches; to escape political turmoil in the homeland; in search of religious freedom. These are some of the many reasons individuals made the trek to the United States throughout its history. It is difficult to make broad generalizations about why people migrated to the United States, but we can safely say that most of the millions of migrants that decided to migrate did so for reasons related to economic opportunity.

It is easiest to understand the kinds of migration forces that shaped the American colonies and the nation in terms of three factors: push, pull, and means. Push factors are those causing the emigrant to leave the homeland. Pull factors are those drawing immigrants to the new land. Finally, the migrant needed the means to make the trip, the financial resources (such as ship-passage money) necessary to make the move. Contrary to the popular conception of American immigrants as the most impoverished members of the international community (a myth perpetuated in part by the Emma Lazarus poem inscribed on the Statue of Liberty's pedestal, *The New Colossus*), immigrants needed funds to get where they were going, funds the very poorest did not possess. Immigrants were by no means well-off, but they were not the poorest of their communities either. Rather, many saw declining opportunity in the homeland, and believed the new land one of rising opportunities.

The big push and pull factors triggering the nineteenth- and twentieth-century migrations to the United States were related to industrialization. Throughout this period different regions of Europe and the Americas were undergoing industrial revolution, which generally unfolded in two stages and at different times in different countries. The first industrial revolution, in which the basic structures of industrial society were put in place, occurred in England and the United States in the late 1700s, and early 1800s. The economic transformation accompanying the technological innovations of the first industrial revolution helped trigger a second wave of immigration, also known as the old immigration period. This group came largely between 1840 and 1880. Most of these immigrants came from northern and western Europe, in search of work in the growing cities of the northeastern United States, and land in the rural Midwest and Western countryside. Some Asians were included in this wave as well.

A second industrial revolution centered in the United States and Germany occurred in the late nineteenth century. This industrial revolution involved the development of improved transportation networks and an expansion of manufacturing. Combined, these developments in industry attracted a third wave of immigrants in addition to the older group, which came in smaller and smaller numbers.

The 1880 to 1930 immigrants, also known as the new immigrants, vary from the early migrants in skill level and origins. With the exception of the Irish, the earlier immigrants were largely skilled workers, while after 1880 the immigrants were on the whole unskilled workers largely from small farms. Also, the new immigrants came from different locations than the older group, as the graph (**Document 3**), listing the country of origin of the largest groups of immigrants from the 1880-1930 period shows. Southern and eastern European immigrants predominate over the northern and western Europeans by this time. A look at **Document 2** shows that there were also immigrants coming from South America (mostly Mexico) and Asia during this time, though not as many as from Europe. By 1900, 14 percent of the nation's population was foreign born. Between 1880 and 1930 more than 27 million people entered the United States. Considering that the national population in 1910 was just under 92 million, this was a large number of newcomers, even if, as was the case, many returned home.

Fearing the newcomers would destroy American institutions or take land and jobs away from those already in the United States, many influential leaders began to advocate immigration restriction. The Red Scare following World War I made the immigration restriction movement more popular, and a series of laws were passed to limit the number of new immigrants to the United States during this period. In 1921 Congress passed the Quota Law of 1921, which restricted yearly immigration to approximately 350,000 people. To reduce immigration from southern and eastern Europe, where individuals were judged to be racially inferior, this 1921 law limited annual immigration from any one nation to three percent of the number of foreign-born persons from that country living in the United States in 1910. Further restricting the number of new immigrants from southern and eastern Europe was the Immigration Act of 1924, also known as the Johnson-Reed Act. This act established that the annual quota of immigrants should be two percent of the number of foreign-born living in the United States according to the 1890 census. Because there were fewer southern and eastern Europeans in the United States in 1890 than in 1910, this had the effect of allowing very few of people of this region in. For example, the annual quota for people from Great Britain was 65,721, while 5,802 were permitted yearly from Italy. This law also almost completely cut off Asian immigration. By 1930, yearly immigration was limited to about 150,000 people.

South America was not subject to the Johnson-Reed Act, and as a result, by the 1950s many of the most recent newcomers to the United States came from Mexico. Indeed, this foreshadowed the post-1965 trend, wherein Mexicans — as the graph shows — constitute the most numerous group of the fourth wave of immigrants, which are also known as present-day immigrants. This trend is due in part to the passage of the Immigration Act of 1965. This act abolished the discriminatory quotas based on national origins that had favored northwestern Europeans and substituted a system based on family preference. Once immigrants became citizens, they could bring their relatives and reconstitute their families. This provision resulted in a much larger number of newcomers than legislators had anticipated. Congress believed that most immigrants would continue to be Europeans, but a general improvement in the European economy, worsening conditions in South America, the war in Vietnam, and the family preference system resulted in a shift. Now, as the graph shows, newcomers from Asia and Latin America far outnumber those from Europe.

Immigrants that have come since 1965, moreover, also came for largely economic reasons, but they entered a largely postindustrial economy rather than the industrializing world of the previous set of immigrants. A postindustrial economy is one where service production drives the economy rather than goods production, which drives an industrial economy. For working-class immigrants, this means that the factory jobs producing canned goods, vacuum cleaners, or cars of the previous immigration period are replaced by immigrant jobs serving food in restaurants, servicing those cars, or cleaning homes. The most numerous groups of the fourth wave include Mexican, Latin American, and Caribbean peoples, Asian, African, Middle Easterners as well as members of the former Soviet Union.

Activity 1

Explain or have students read the background section on United States immigration. Discuss the different waves of immigrants that came, which encountered an industrial economy and which encountered postindustrial circumstances. Also talk about the immigration laws mentioned above, and how they might have influenced the number of immigrants to the United States during the twentieth century.

Hand out **Document 1,** showing Immigration to the United States, 1820-2000. Discuss which decades had the highest numbers of immigrants. Ask students:

1. What kind of circumstances might immigrants of the different decades have encountered?

2. Why were there so few immigrants during the 1930s and 1940s compared to the previous three decades?
3. Why would the numbers have risen so much in the 1960s?

Activity 2

Hand out **Document 2,** showing Region of Last Residence of Legal Immigrants, Percent of Distribution by Decade.

Explain that the percentages of each decade are of the total amount of immigrants listed by decade in Document 1. Break students into groups and ask each group to take one of the twentieth century decades and break down the decade according to the regional percentages presented by the graph. Point out to students that these numbers will not be absolutely precise, as immigration rates under 1 percent are not represented on the graph — a bias of the document.

Discuss the different regional groups that would have predominated during each decade and what kind of employment options each group might have had.

Activity 3

Hand out **Documents 3 and 4.** Explain that these break (into national groups) the largest groups of immigrants of two historical periods.

1. What are the nationalities of the largest groups of immigrants of each period?
2. What kinds of jobs would be open to different national groups during each period?

Enrichment/Extension

Select a particular regional or national group for a more extensive research project. Students may want to combine a case study of the development of a particular national group with census figures available online. What circumstances triggered the influx of members of that group to the United States? Where did members of that group predominantly settle when they first came? How did native-born Americans perceive members of that group?

Another option is to focus on a particular member of an immigrant community and conduct research on that individual with a focus on his/her immigrant background. This could be a family member or a prominent member of that community.

How to Use this Lesson for History Day Entries

Every immigrant was, in her or his own way, an explorer of the new society, who encountered the familiar and the unfamiliar, and made exchanges between the old and the new. Students could look at the encounters and exchanges that took place between New York's native-born population and that city's earliest Chinese immigrants, or the role of Chinese and Irish immigrants in the nation's Westward exploration, expansion, and settlement. Mexican migrants live in a borderlands culture, in which exchanges between the United States' and Mexican culture are occurring all of the time. A project could explore exchange and United States-Mexican borderland culture. One might look into the reasons so many West Indian immigrants decided to explore economic options in the United States in the last half of the twentieth century.

Sources Consulted for this Lesson/ Bibliography for Further Reading

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Some Useful Web sites for Projects Related to Immigration

http://www.ellisisland.org

http://www.umn.edu/ihrc/

http://www.balchinstitute.org/

http://www.angelisland.org/immigr02.html

http://www.americanswedishinst.org/archives.htm

http://www.nyirish.net/

http://www.aihs.org/links.html

http://www.mcny.org/irish.htm

http://www.nycenet.edu/csd1/museums/

http://www.wingluke.org/

http://www.sfmuseum.org/hist1/index0.html#chinese

http://cprr.org/Museum/Chinese.html

http://educate.si.edu/migrations/bord/intro.html

* * *

TABLE 1. IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES: FISCAL YEARS 1820 - 2000

Year	Number	Year	Number	Year	Number	Year	Number
1820 - 2000	**66,089,431**						
1820	8,385						
1821-30	**143,439**	**1871-80**	**2,812,191**	**1921-30**	**4,107,209**	**1971-80**	**4,493,314**
1821	9,127	1871	321,350	1921	805,228	1971	370,478
1822	6,911	1872	404,806	1922	309,556	1972	384,685
1823	6,354	1873	459,803	1923	522,919	1973	400,063
1824	7,912	1874	313,339	1924	706,896	1974	394,861
1825	10,199	1875	227,498	1925	294,314	1975	386,194
1826	10,837	1876	169,986	1926	304,488	1976	398,613
1827	18,875	1877	141,857	1927	335,175	1976, TQ[1]	103,676
1828	27,382	1878	138,469	1928	307,255	1977	462,315
1829	22,520	1879	177,826	1929	279,678	1978	601,442
1830	23,322	1880	457,257	1930	241,700	1979	460,348
						1980	530,639
1831-40	**599,125**	**1881-90**	**5,246,613**	**1931-40**	**528,431**		
1831	22,633	1881	669,431	1931	97,139	**1981-90**	**7,338,062**
1832	60,482	1882	788,992	1932	35,576	1981	596,600
1833	58,640	1883	603,322	1933	23,068	1982	594,131
1834	65,365	1884	518,592	1934	29,470	1983	559,763
1835	45,374	1885	395,346	1935	34,956	1984	543,903
1836	76,242	1886	334,203	1936	36,329	1985	570,009
1837	79,340	1887	490,109	1937	50,244	1986	601,708
1838	38,914	1888	546,889	1938	67,895	1987	601,516
1839	68,069	1889	444,427	1939	82,998	1988	643,025
1840	84,066	1890	455,302	1940	70,756	1989	1,090,924
						1990	1,536,483
1841-50	**1,713,251**	**1891-1900**	**3,687,564**	**1941-50**	**1,035,039**		
1841	80,289	1891	560,319	1941	51,776	**1991-2000**	**9,095,417**
1842	104,565	1892	579,663	1942	28,781	1991	1,827,167
1843	52,496	1893	439,730	1943	23,725	1992	973,977
1844	78,615	1894	285,631	1944	28,551	1993	904,292
1845	114,371	1895	258,536	1945	38,119	1994	804,416
1846	154,416	1896	343,267	1946	108,721	1995	720,461
1847	234,968	1897	230,832	1947	147,292	1996	915,900
1848	226,527	1898	229,299	1948	170,570	1997	798,378
1849	297,024	1899	311,715	1949	188,317	1998	654,451
1850	369,980	.900	448,572	1950	249,187	1999	646,568
						2000	849,807
1851-60	**2,598,214**	**1901-10**	**8,795,386**	**1951-60**	**2,515,479**		
1851	379,466	1901	487,918	1951	205,717		
1852	371,603	1902	648,743	1952	265,520		
1853	368,645	1903	857,046	1953	170,434		
1854	427,833	1904	812,870	1954	208,177		
1855	200,877	1905	1,026,499	1955	237,790		
1856	200,436	1906	1,100,735	1956	321,625		
1857	251,306	1907	1,285,349	1957	326,867		
1858	123,126	1908	782,870	1958	253,265		
1859	121,282	1909	751,786	1959	260,686		
1860	153,640	1910	1,041,570	1960	265,398		
1861-70	**2,314,824**	**1911-20**	**5,735,811**	**1961-70**	**3,321,677**		
1861	91,918	1911	878,587	1961	271,344		
1862	91,985	1912	838,172	1962	283,763		
1863	176,282	1913	1,197,892	1963	306,260		
1864	193,418	1914	1,218,480	1964	292,248		
1865	248,120	1915	326,700	1965	296,697		
1866	318,568	1916	298,826	1966	323,040		
1867	315,722	1917	295,403	1967	361,972		
1868	138,840	1918	110,618	1968	454,448		
1869	352,768	1919	141,132	1969	358,579		
1870	387,203	1920	430,001	1970	373,326		

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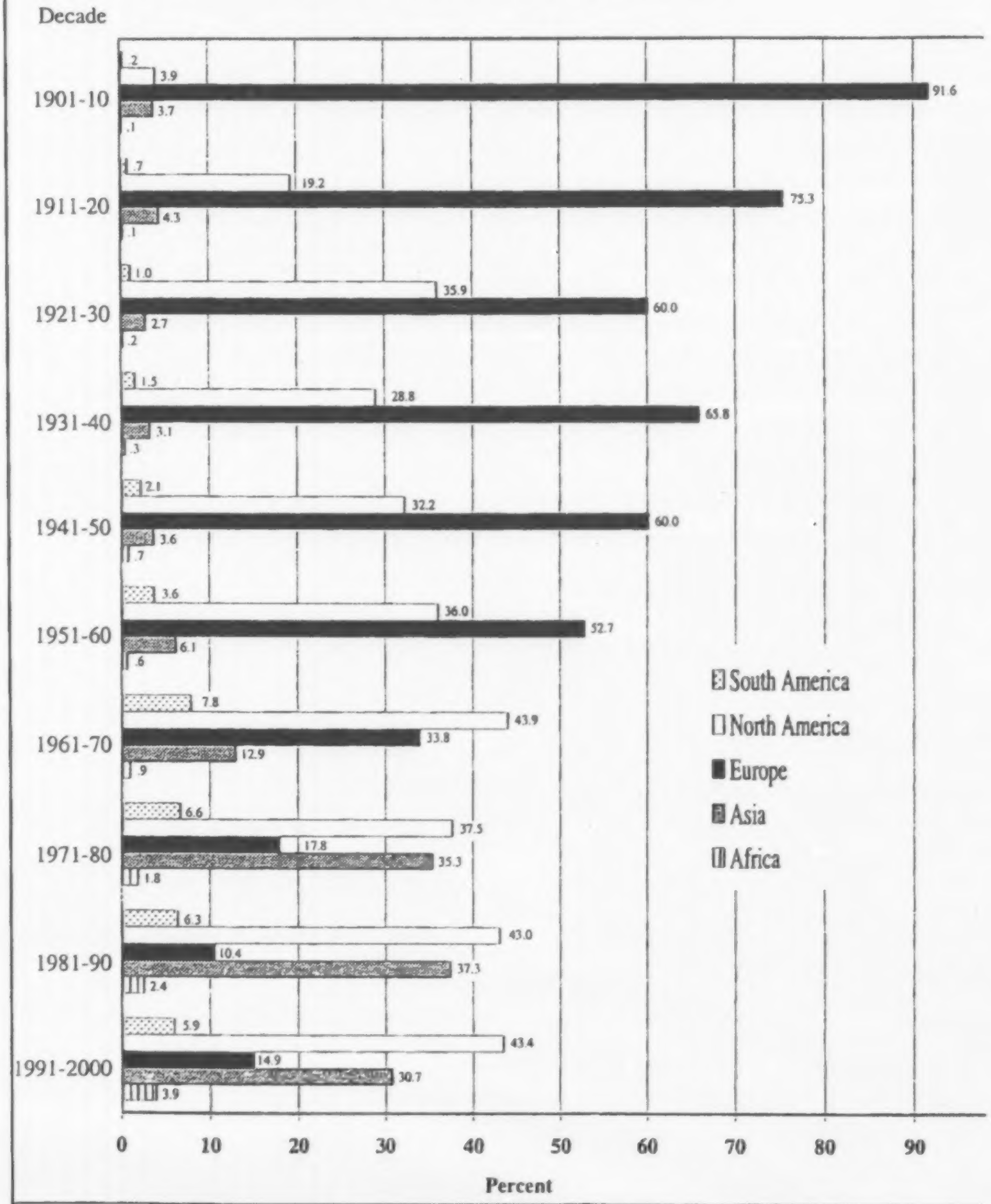
[1] Transition quarter, July 1 through September 30, 1976.

NOTE: The numbers shown are as follows: from 1820-67, figures represent alien passengers arrived at seaports; from 1868-92 and 1895-97, immigrant aliens arrived; from 1892-94 and 1898-1999, immigrant aliens admitted for permanent residence. From 1892-1903, aliens entering by cabin class were not counted as immigrants. Land arrivals were not completely enumerated until 1908. See Glossary for fiscal year definitions.

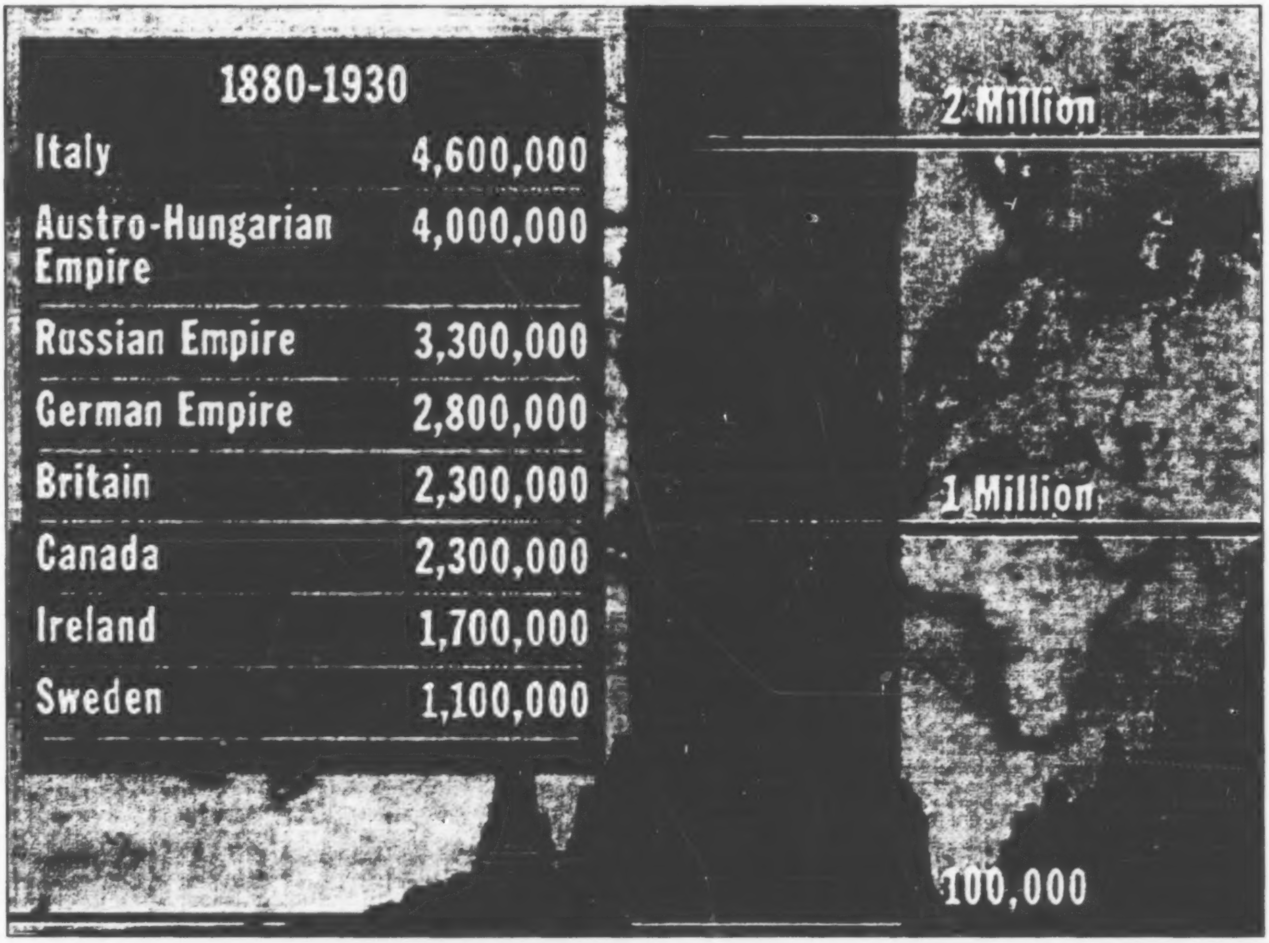
Document 1 – *This is a page from an official United States government document showing Immigration to the United States: Fiscal Years 1820-2000. (U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, 2000, U.S. Government Printing Office: Washington, D.C., 2002.)*

Chart B. Region of Last Residence of Legal Immigrants, Percent Distribution by Decade



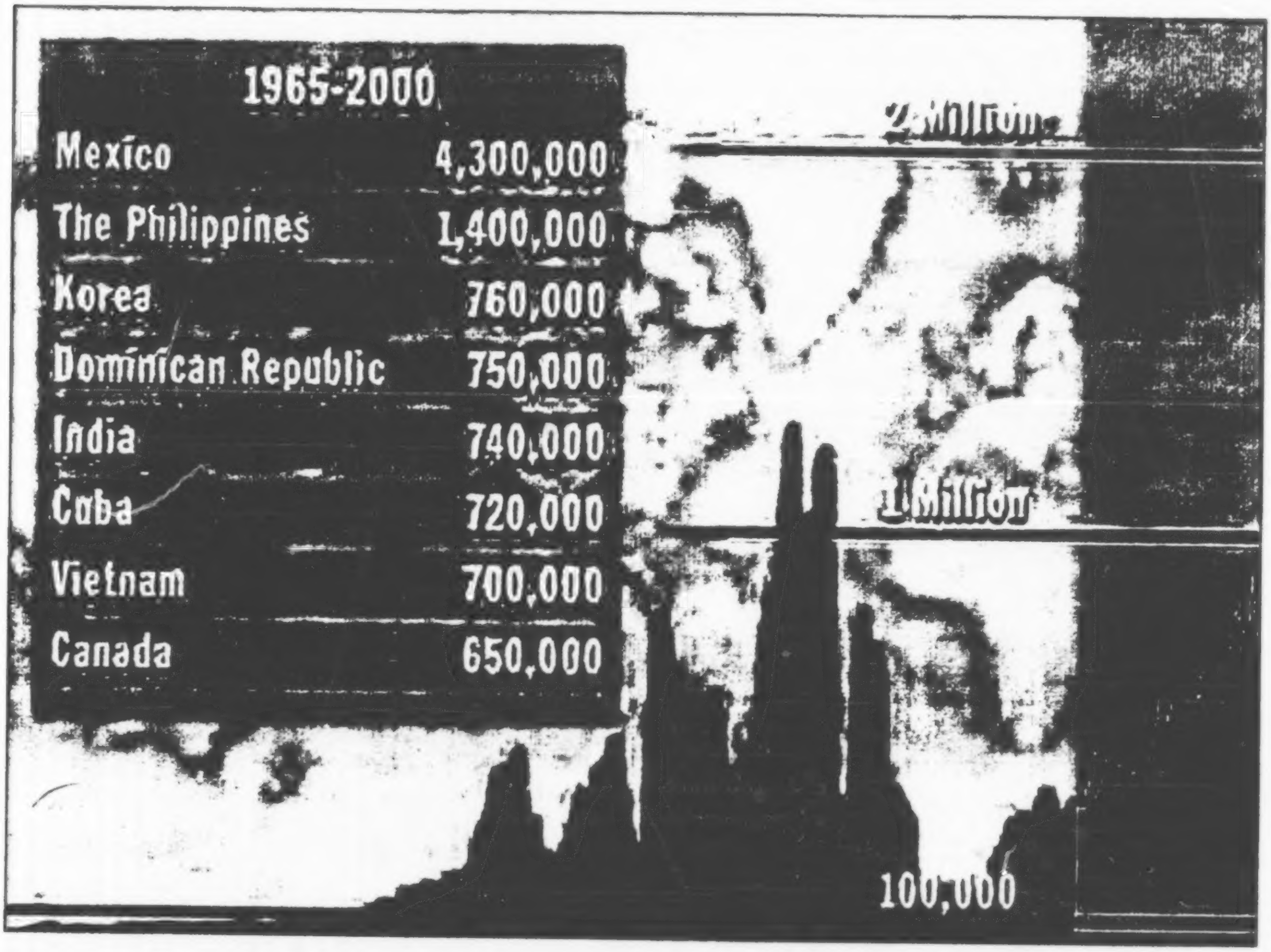
Note: Oceania and unspecified region represent no more than 1 percent of legal immigration each decade. Source: Table 2.

Document 2 – *This is a page from an official United States government document showing Region of Last Residence of Legal Immigrants, Percent Distribution by Decade, 1901-2000. (U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, 2000, U.S. Government Printing Office: Washington, D.C., 2002.)*



1880-1930	
Italy	4,600,000
Austro-Hungarian Empire	4,000,000
Russian Empire	3,300,000
German Empire	2,800,000
Britain	2,300,000
Canada	2,300,000
Ireland	1,700,000
Sweden	1,100,000

Document 3 – *This graph shows about how many immigrants were in the United States, 1880-1930, and the countries from which they came. (Courtesy The Statue of Liberty-Ellis Island Foundation, Inc.)*



1965-2000	
Mexico	4,300,000
The Philippines	1,400,000
Korea	760,000
Dominican Republic	750,000
India	740,000
Cuba	720,000
Vietnam	700,000
Canada	650,000

Document 4 – *This graph shows about how many immigrants were in the United States, 1965-2000, and the countries from which they came. (Courtesy The Statue of Liberty-Ellis Island Foundation, Inc.)*

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The American Journeys project will also be producing instructional materials to accompany the Web site, available beginning Fall 2003.

For more information, contact

Michael Edmonds at the Wisconsin Historical Society:
miedmonds@whs.wisc.edu

or Maria Mazzenga at National History Day:
mmazzenga@nationalhistoryday.org.

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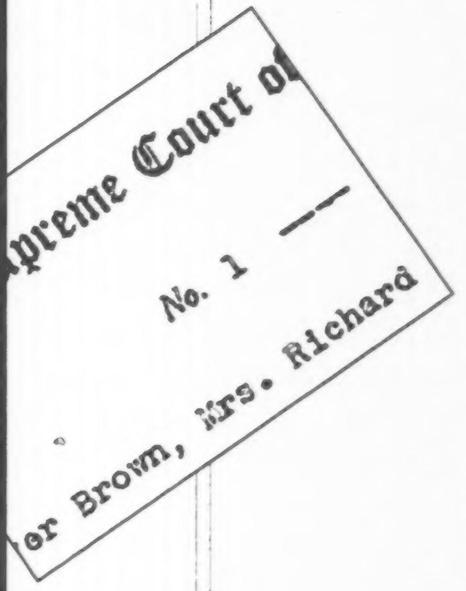

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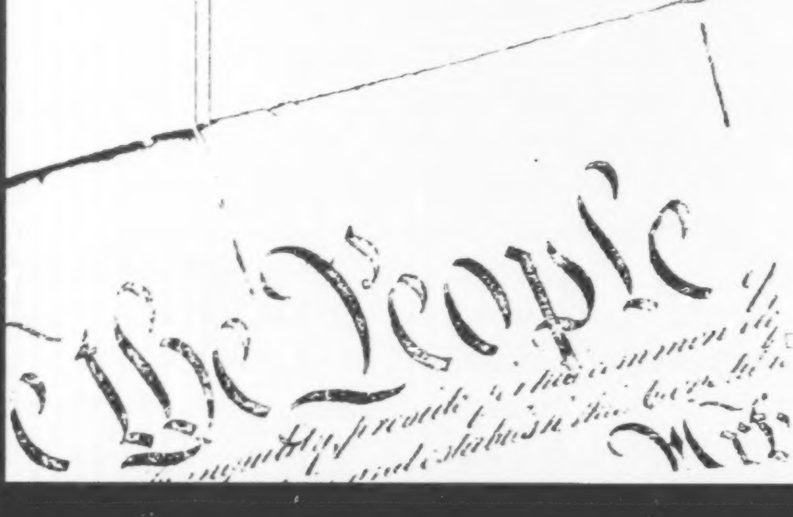

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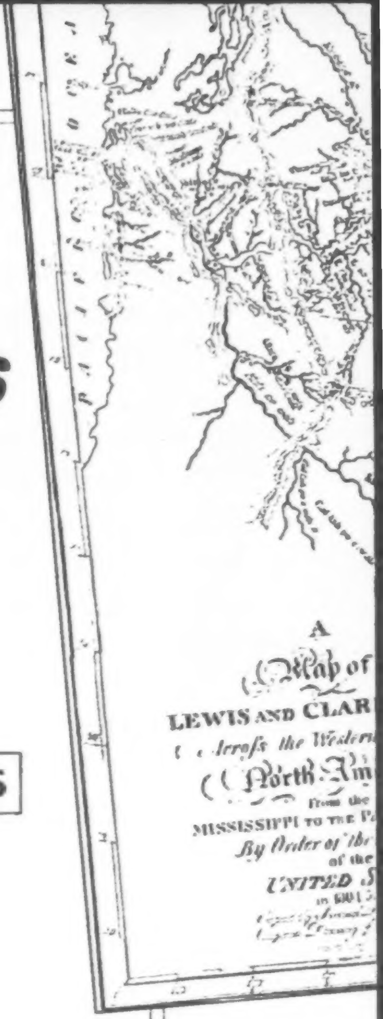

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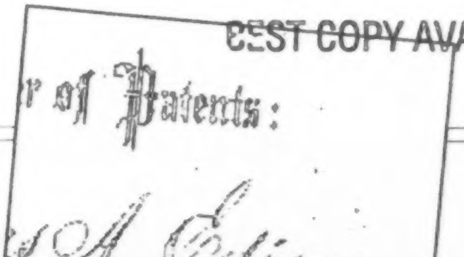

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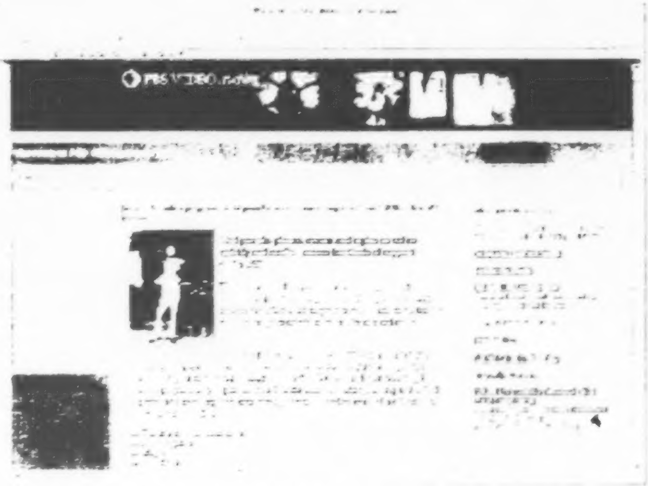

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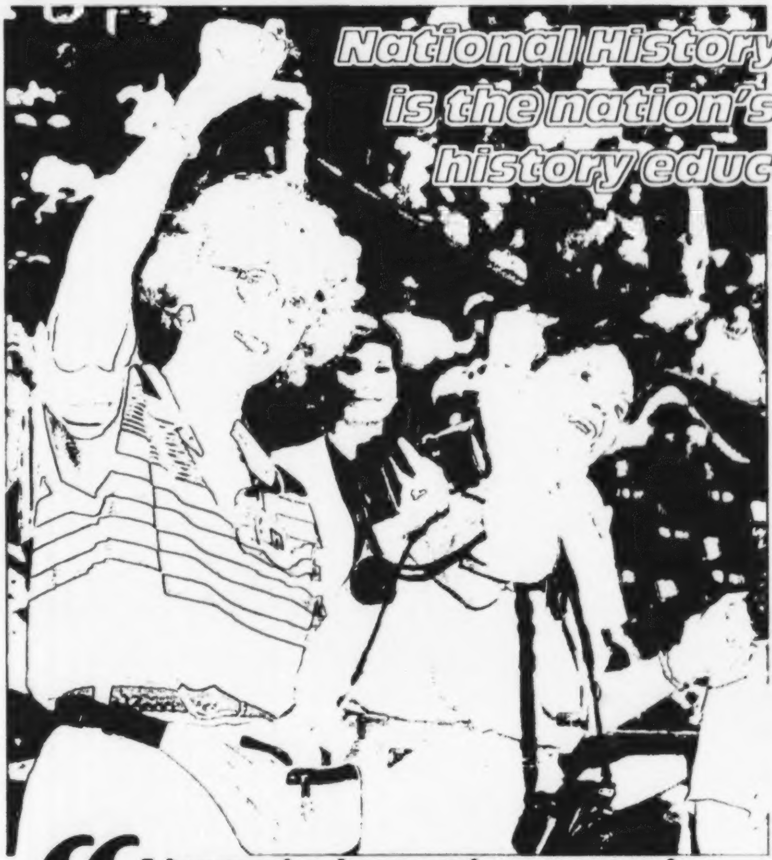

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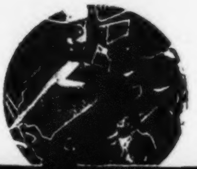

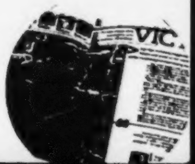

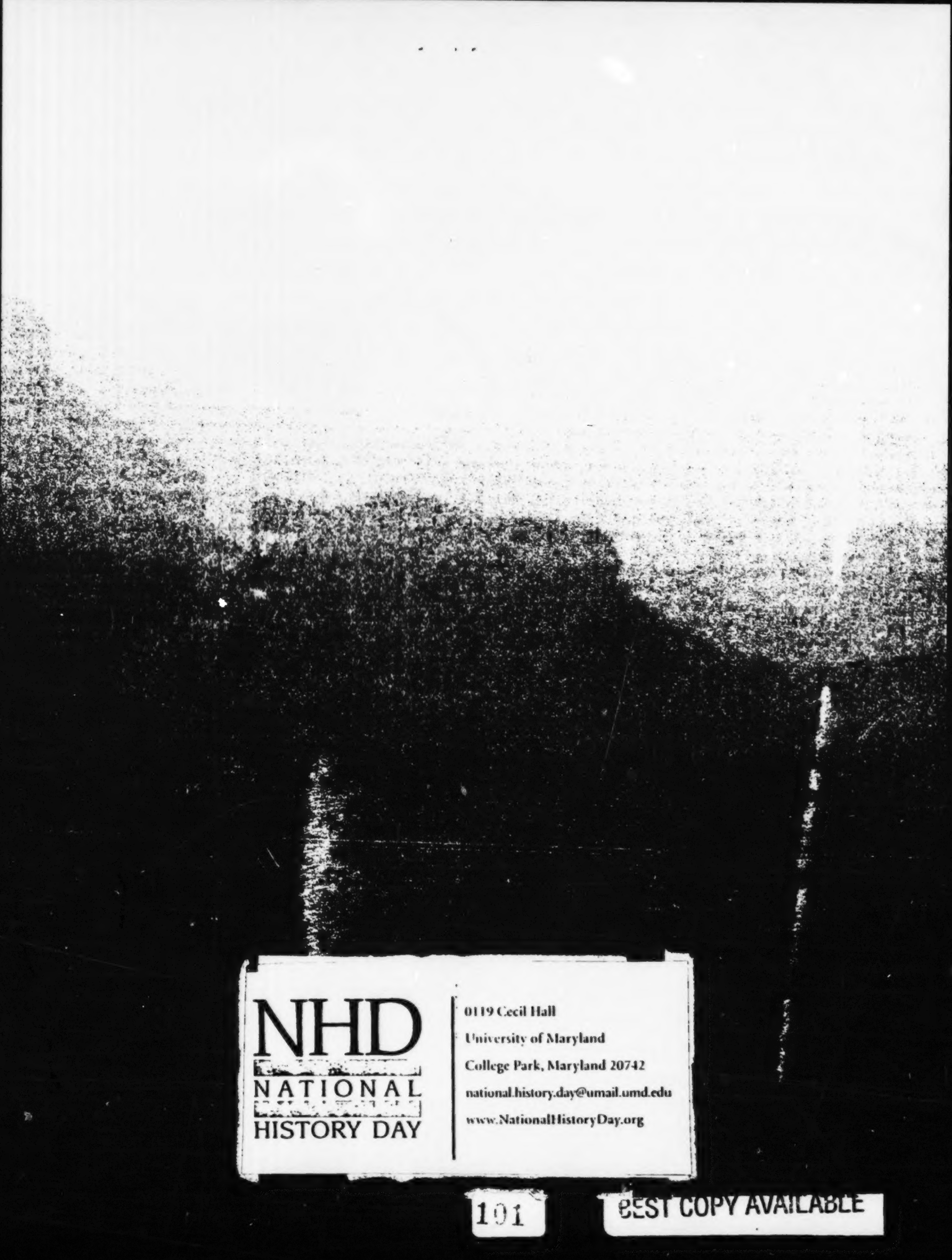NHD
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